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ABSTRACT

This text- and workbook serves as an introduction to French, German, and Spanish as second languages. An introductory chapter discusses the relatedness of languages and the interrelationships of the Indo-European language families. The relationships of French, German, and Spanish to English are demonstrated in cognate exercises. In the second chapter, sound systems in general and sound production in particular are explained using the International Phonetic Alphabet. Individual alphabets of the three languages are also included. The third chapter provides an introduction to various geographic and proper names and to denotations of the seasons, months, days, numbers, and expressions of time. Criteria for choosing to study a particular language are outlined in chapter 4. In chapter 5, the diversity of linguistic thinking is illustrated by examining varieties of corresponding English, French, German, and Spanish idiomatic expressions. Equivalent proverbs are also used to show cultural differences expressed in language. The sixth chapter outlines grammatical terms and parts of speech for use in language comparisons. The final chapter contains quizzes and a list of occupations in which foreign language competence can be an asset. A bibliography of over 70 items is also included. (MSE)

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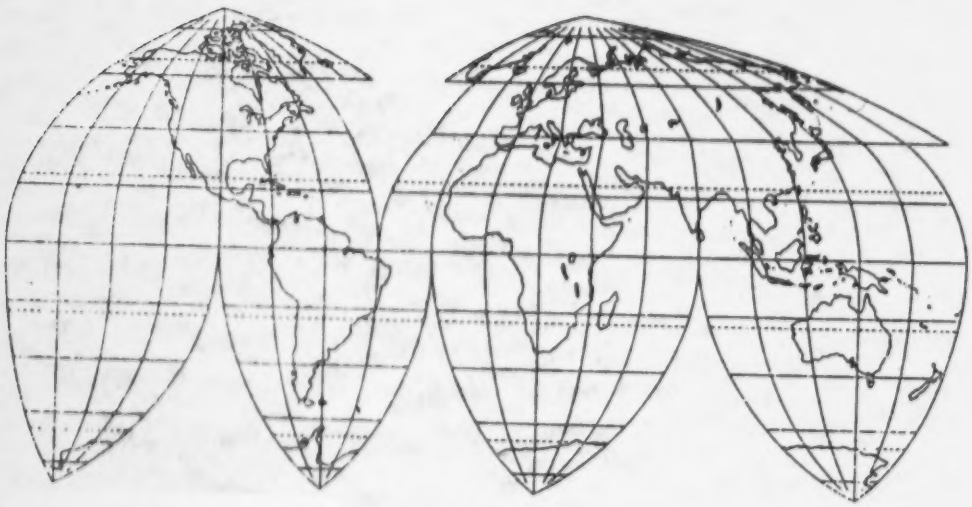

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E x p l o r i n g

FRENCH, GERMAN,

and SPANISH

By

Jacob Steigerwald, Ph.D.

Winona, Minnesota
U.S.A.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

Foreword - v

I. Introduction- 1
THE RELATEDNESS OF LANGUAGES- 1
THE INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGE FAMILY - 2
LANGUAGE CONSISTS OF A SET OF HABITS- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -13

II. Sound Systems and Common Phrases- -16
FRENCH- -23
GERMAN- -27
SPANISH -31

III. Comparing Names and Denotations -36
SEASONS, MONTHS, DAYS OF THE WEEK, AND HOLIDAYS - - - - - - - - - - -38
NUMBERS AMD COUNTING- -40
TIME EXPRESSIONS AND GEOGRAPHIC DIRECTIONS- - - - - - - - - - - - - -46

IV. People and Concepts -50
BASES OF LANGUAGE SELECTION -50
MAPS AND NATIONALITIES- -52
INHERENT CRITERIA -56

V. Probing Language Substance- -58
WHICH COULD I GET INTO? -58
COMPARING IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -60
EXAMINING PROVERBIAL SAYINGS- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -68

VI. Structural Comparisons- -80
THE SENTENCE- -81
NOUNS -87
ADJECTIVES- -94
PRONOUNS- 106
VERBS - 115
ADVERBS - 121
PREPOSITIONS- 124
CONJUNCTIONS- 125

VII. Didactic Resources- 127
QUIZ AND DISCUSSION PROBLEMS- 127
LIST OF OCCUPATIONS IN WHICH FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMPETENCE
CAN BE AN ASSET - 143
BIBLIOGRAPHY- 159

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The initial draft of the publication at hand dates back to 1976. Without the encouragement, moral support, and practical assistance of innumerable people, it would not have reached its present state of completion. Therefore, I wish to express my thanks to all those who contributed to this scholarly endeavor in some positive way, including the following:

1) Colleagues and students who felt that a course of this type can help individuals in deciding whether foreign language study would be a suitable subject for them and, if so, which of the three most popular ones generally taught in the U. S. might, respectively, prove to be the most germane choice;
2) superiors who provided me with opportunities to teach elementary French, German, and Spanish at Winona State University since 1971, whereby useful knowledge was gained for the eventual publication of this exploratory workbook;
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5) my wife Marie who endured having her patience and contentedness overtaxed by "books, nothin' but books!"
6) technical and support staff who helped shape this volume into its ultimate form.

Last, but not least, a special word of thanks seems to be in order for those who will help convey this publication to appropriate users for optimal educational benefits.

J. St.

FOREWORD

"The idea of a common language for all of mankind is as appealing as man's hope for peace," observed William Riley Parker in his book The national Interest and Foreign Languages, 3rd edition (Washington, D. C., 1962), p. 2. A couple of centuries ago, Latin came close to serving as a universal language among the educated in the Western world. However, like other naturally evolved languages, it is not systematic or logical enough to be easily learned by everyone attempting to acquire a knowledge of it.

In order to implement the ideal of a universal language, over three hundred so-called "man-made," "synthetic," "artificial," and "constructed" languages have been proposed over the years. Among the best-known are Esperanto, Interlinga, and Volapück. All of them feature simplified structures and a minimal number of grammatical rules. Their respective advocates feel that if everyone in the world would learn a universal language besides his or her native tongue, communication barriers would be largely eliminated; but so far, nobody has succeeded in achieving widespread adoption of a truly universal language.

Meanwhile, mutual global interdependence continues to increase rapidly, especially in the fields of food and energy production and in areas relating to environmental protection and ecology - things that are of universal concern. Thus, the need for improved international communication has never been greater! Having a keen awareness of this on one hand, and having been prevented, on the other, from doing something about it - because of a lack of time or opportunities, has left many high school and college graduates wondering whether they might have been able

to at least learn a traditional foreign language and, if so, which of the three most popular ones in the United States would have proved to be their best respective choice. As a result of recent reintroductions of language requirements at leading universities, like the University of Minnesota for example, college students are finding out that they could have saved on tuition fees if they had studied foreign languages in high school.

If the common saying concerning the need to speak "the customer's language" really has merit in business transactions here at home, then it should yield even greater benefits in the international arena! Coincidentally, it would undoubtedly also help the nation achieve a more favorable balance of payments profile.

Just how small the world has really become, can be readily seen by taking note of the large number of commercial and industrial companies that have literally branched out all over the globe. Thus, no matter how far one travels at least in the free world, one encounters familiar brands of products almost everywhere. The eighth edition of the Directory of American Firms Operating in Foreign Countries was published in 1975 as a single-volume source of reference. The tenth edition, published in 1984, comprises three volumes! Its counterpart, the Directory of Foreign Firms Operating in the U. S., appeared in its fifth enlarged edition in 1986.

In our age of advanced technologies and automation, it no longer takes the combined efforts of everyone to satisfy the basic material requirements of the constituents of modern societies. This means that jobs in general and better positions in particular, will be landed by applicants who have something extra to offer.

One great advantage in any human endeavor is the ability to communicate effectively. This realization - all by itself - should provide

sufficient motivation for learning other languages. However, one has to reckon with reality where idealism is often forced to yield to other concerns. Usually, these concerns relate more directly to the rather flippantly perceived need to make a living. Since this need still must be regarded as the primary driving force for concerted action by most people, it follows that many users of this exploratory workbook would like to get some fairly specific ideas about how they might translate possible foreign language skills into potential career boosters.

Occupations in which a knowledge of foreign languages can obviously be relevant, were arranged into broad general categories by Lucille J. Honig and Richard I. Brod in their monograph on Foreign Languages and Careers, published by the Modern Language Association. A much more detailed index, largely compiled from the Dictionary of Occupational Titles and the Occupational Outlook Handbook, is included in this workbook (p. 143f.). This 15-page alphabetical roster constitutes the most extensive available file concerning occupations in which competence in foreign languages may prove to be a veritable personal or career asset.

Another "bonus" feature found in this workbook consists of provisions in exercise sections for optional entries in additional languages. Thus, the opportunities for meaningful supplementary comparisons are correspondingly enhanced.

The main topics that are treated in this exploratory text can be readily identified in the table of contents. Hopefully, the book will prove to be a useful tool in helping high school or college students and adults arrive at advantageous decisions concerning language study. Those who will go on to "a real thing" may find that learning another language can be likened to a wondrous journey that expands one's perceptive and

communicative abilities structurally, through added vocabulary, and by exposure to different cultural realms.

BON VOYAGE! - GUTE REISE! - ¡BUEN VIAJE!

Summer 1987 Dr. Jacob Steigerwald

I. Introduction

THE RELATEDNESS OF LANGUAGES

Estimates vary, but there are thought to be about thirty-five hundred different languages in existence on earth. The Bible has been translated into about fifteen hundred languages and dialects.[1] According to Biblical record, the language of man was confounded as a result of his haughty and unfaithful conduct. But that is not how linguists and anthropologists see it. On the basis of extensive comparative studies, they determined that certain groups of languages belong to so-called "families." The Indo-European (I.E.) language family includes all the languages of Europe with the exception of Finnish and Hungarian, which are part of the Uralic-Altaic family, and Basque, which has never been classified. Using existing forms, linguists have tried to reconstruct many I.E. words. For example, Sanskrit (Skt) dáśa, Greek (Gk) δέκα, Latin (L) decem, Welsh (W) deg, Gothic (Goth) taíhun, and English (E) ten, suggest the I.E. form *dekm.[2] Skt. bhrātā, Gk. φράτωρ, L. frāter, W. brawd, and E. brother point to the I.E. form *bhrātēr or *bhrātōr. The branch of linguistics that deals with this type of specialized study comes under the headings "comparative grammar " and "historical linguistics."[3]

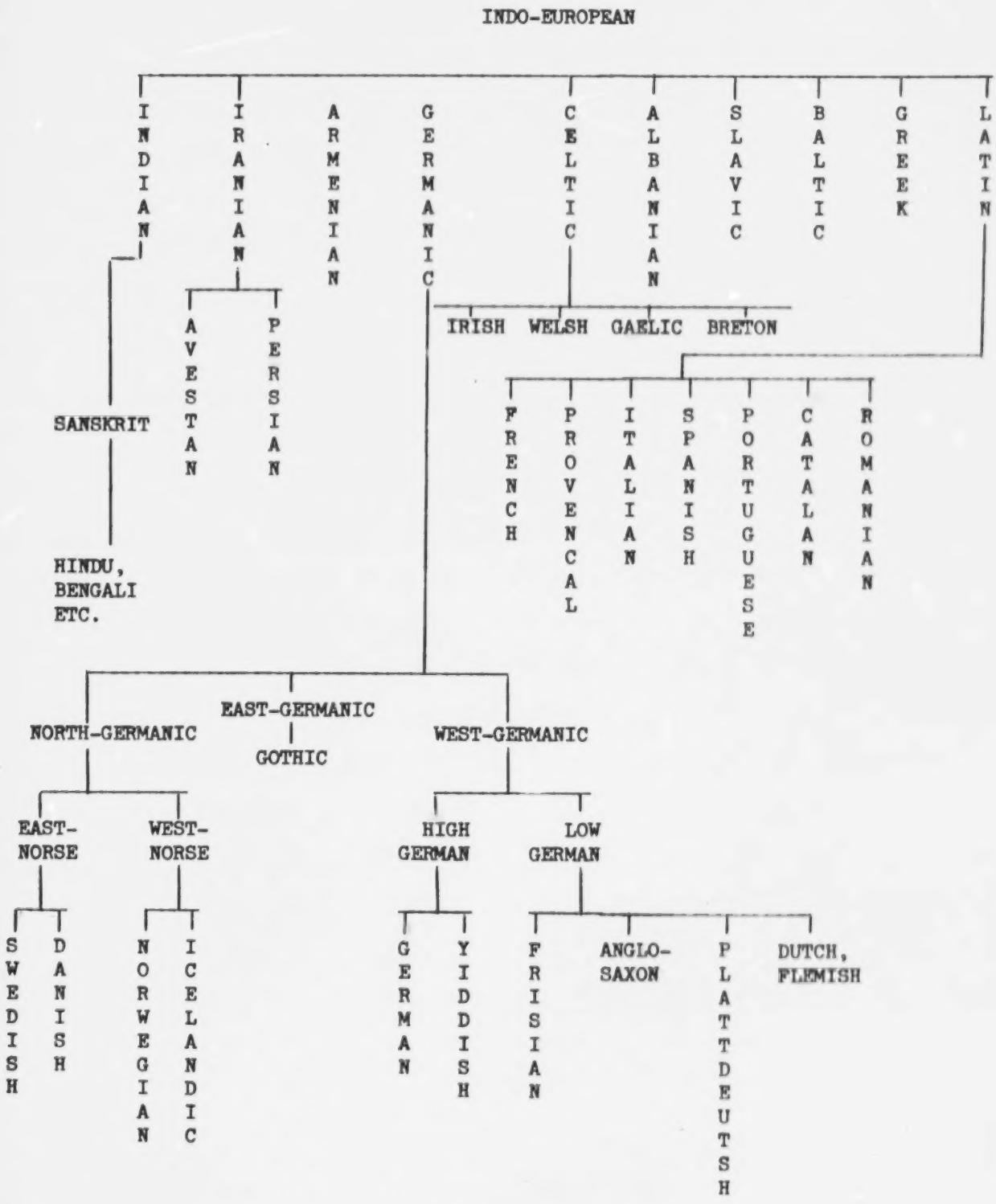
---

[1]According to Vera Durkovic, "What Language for a Prayer?" Quinto Lingo. The Multi-Lingual Magazine (April, 1976), p. 39.

[2]Reconstructed forms are prefixed with an asterisk.

[3]The most useful book of reference: Alois Walde Vergleichendes Wörterbuch der indogermanischen Sprachen, edited by Julius Pokorny, vols. 1-3 (Leipzig 1927-1932).

The following graph lists the main branches of the I.E. family of languages:



The relatedness of English, French, German, and Spanish accounts only partly for the presence of words that are similar in meaning and appearance. While some of them are true cognates which can be traced to a common root--compare English "apple" and German "Apfel," there are others that were simply adopted--with or without a change in meaning, especially from Latin, which has been considered a "mother" of languages. It should be pointed out that an identical or nearly identical appearance is no guarantee that the word (or words) in question have the same meanings in each of the languages in which it (or they) occur(s). For example the French verb attendre means "to wait" (for someone or something), not "to attend" an event, etc. Similarly the word Kind means "child" in German, not "kind." The Spanish noun librería means "bookstore," not "library." Caution is in order to keep from being led astray by "false" cognates or "look-alikes." However, there are numerous words whose meanings can safely be "guessed" by the English-speaking learner.[1] Examples (write in the English equivalents; speakers of other languages may wish to expand the exercise further):

	FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ENGLISH	OTHER
1)	abbaye	Abtei[2]	abadía	_____	_____
2)	absolu	absolut[3]	absoluto	_____	_____

[1]The words listed are not necessarily completely identical in all their meanings.

[2]In accordance with the rules of German orthography, all nouns are capitalized.

[3]Many of the Latin (and Greek) -based entries in this column have synonyms which are of Germanic origin. The same phenomenon exists in English where the Latin-based word to commence has the Anglo-Saxon equivalent to begin, for example.

	FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ENGLISH	OTHER
3)	abstrait	abstrakt	abstracto		
4)	absurde	absurd	absurdo		
5)	académique	akademisch	académico		
6)	accent	Akzent	acento		
7)	action	Aktion	acción		
8)	activité	Aktivität	actividad		
9)	administration	Administration	administracion		
10)	amiral	Admiral	almirante		
11)	adopter	adoptieren	adoptar		
12)	esthétique	Ästhetik	estética		
13)	agent	Agent	agente		
14)	album	Album	album		
15)	albumen	Albumen	albúmina		
16)	alchimiste	Alchimist	alquimista		
17)	alcool	Alkohol	alcohol		
18)	alque	Alge	alga		
19)	algèbre	Algebra	álgebra		
20)	Algérien	Algerier	Argelino		
21)	alcali	Alkali	álcali		
22)	allégorie	Allegorie	alegoría		
23)	alliance	Allianz	alianza		
24)	alpin	alpin	alpino		
25)	autel	Altar	altar		
26)	alternatif	Alternative	alternativa		
27)	alun	Alaun	alumbre		

	FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ENGLISH	OTHER
28)	aluminium	Aluminium	aluminio		
29)	amateur	Amateur	(aficionado)		
30)	amazone	Amazone	amazona		
31)	ambition	Ambition	ambición		
32)	ambulance	Ambulanz	ambulancia		
33)	americain	Amerikaner	americano		
34)	améthyste	Amethyst	amatista		
35)	ammoniaque	Ammoniak	amoniaco		
36)	amnésie	Amnesie	amnesia		
37)	amnistie	Amnestie	amnistía		
38)	amibe	Amöbe	amibea		
39)	amoral	amoralisch	amoral		
40)	amoureux	(verliebt)	amoroso		
41)	amorphe	amorph	amorfo		
42)	amortier	amortisieren	amortisar		
43)	amphibie	amphibisch	anfibio		
44)	amphithéâtre	Amphitheater	anfiteatro		
45)	ampoule	Ampulle	ampolla		
46)	amputer	amputieren	amputar		
47)	amulette	Amulett	amuleto		
48)	anachronisme	Anachronismus	anacronismo		
49)	anémie	Anämie	anemia		
50)	anagramme	Anagramm	anagrama		
51)	analogue	analog	análogo		
52)	analyste	Analytiker	analyzador		

	FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ENGLISH	OTHER
53)	anarchisme	Anarchismus	anarchía		
54)	anatomique	anatomisch	anatómico		
55)	ancre	Anker	ancla (or áncora)		
56)	anecdote	Anekdote	anécdota		
57)	ange	Engel	ángel		
58)	anis	Anis	anís		
59)	annuler	annullieren	anular		
60)	anode	Anode	anodo		
61)	anomal	anomal	anómalo		
62)	anonyme	anonym	anónimo		
63)	antarctique	antarktisch	antártico		
64)	antediluvien	antediluvianisch	antediluviano		
65)	antilope	Antilope	antílope		
66)	antenne	Antenne	antena		
67)	anthologie	Anthologie	antología		
68)	Antoine	Anton, Toni	Tonio		
69)	anthracite	Anthrazit	antracita		
70)	anthropologiste	Anthropolog	anthropólogo		
71)	antipathique	antipathisch	antipático		
72)	apathie	Apathie	apatía		
73)	aphorism	Aphorismus	aforismo		
74)	apocalyptique	apokalyptisch	apocalíptico		
75)	apocope	Apokope	apócope		
76)	apologiste	Apologet	apologista		
77)	apostasie	Apostasie	apostasía		
78)	apôtre	Apostel	apóstol		

	FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ENGLISH	OTHER
79)	apostolat	Apostelamt	opostolado		
80)	apostrophe	Apostroph	apóstrofe		
81)	apothicaire	Apotheker	boticario		
82)	appétit	Appetit	apetito		
83)	Applaudissements	Applaus	aplauso		
84)	abricot	Aprikose	albaricoque		
85)	Arabe	Araber	Arabe		
86)	archéologique	archäologisch	arqueológico		
87)	archange	Erzengel	arcángel		
88)	archevêque	Erzbischof	arzobispo		
89)	archidiacre	Archidiakonus	arcediano		
90)	archipel	Archipel	archipiélago		
91)	architecte	Architekt	arquitecto		
92)	archiviste	Archivar	archivero		
93)	arctique	arktisch	ártico		
94)	arène	Arena	arena		
95)	Argentina	Argentinien	Argentina		
96)	argument	Argument	argumento		
97)	aria	Arie	aria		
98)	arien	Arier	arriano		
99)	aristotélique	aristotelisch	aristotélico		
100)	arithmétique	Arithmetik	aritmética		
101)	arche	Arche	arca		
102)	arsenal	Arsenal	arsenal		
103)	arsénique	Arsen(ik)	arsénico		
104)	artésien	artesisch	artesiano		

	FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ENGLISH	OTHER
105)	artichaut	Artischocke	alcachofa		
106)	article	Artikel	artículo		
107)	artillerie	Artillerie	artillería		
108)	asbeste	Asbest	asbesto		
109)	ascétique	asketisch	ascético		
110)	asiatique	asiatisch	asiático		
111)	asperges	Spargel	espárrago		
112)	asphalte	Asphalt	asfalto		
113)	aspirant	Aspirant	aspirante		
114)	aspirer	aspirieren	aspirar		
115)	aspirateur	Aspirator	aspirador		
116)	aspirine	Aspirin	aspirina		
117)	association	Assoziation	asociación		
118)	assonance	Assonanz	asonancia		
119)	assortiment	Sortiment	surtido		
120)	asthmatique	asthmatisch	asmático		
121)	astrologue	Astrologe	astrólogo		
122)	astrologique	astrologisch	astrológicamente		
123)	astronome	Astronom	astrónomo		
124)	atavisme	Atavismus	atavismo		
125)	athée	Atheist	ateista (or ateo)		
126)	athénée	Athenäum	ateneo		
127)	Athénien	Athener	Ateniense		
128)	athlétique	athletisch	atlético		
129)	atmosphère	Athmosphäre	atmósfera		
130)	atome	Atom	atomo		

	FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ENGLISH	OTHER
131)	atrophie	Atrophie	atrofia	_____	_____
132)	août	August	agosto	_____	_____
133)	aurochs	Auerochs	aurochs	_____	_____
134)	authentique	authentisch	auténtico	_____	_____
135)	auteur	Autor	autor	_____	_____
136)	autoritaire	autoritär	autoritario	_____	_____
137)	autorité	Autorität	autoridad	_____	_____
138)	autocratie	Autokratie	autocracia	_____	_____
139)	autocrate	Autokrat	autócrata	_____	_____
140)	autographique	autographisch	autográfico	_____	_____
141)	automate	Automat	autómata	_____	_____
142)	autonome	autonom	autónomo	_____	_____
143)	autonomie	Autonomie	autonomía	_____	_____
144)	axiome	Axiom	axioma	_____	_____
145)	axiomatique	axiomatisch	axiomático	_____	_____
146)	azalée	Azalie	azalea	_____	_____
147)	azimut	Azimut	azimut	_____	_____

In addition to words that happen to occur in all the languages we are concerned with here, there are many that appear only in two of them. For example FRENCH fenêtre and GERMAN Fenster have a common (LATIN: fenestra) origin. The corresponding forms in ENGLISH and SPANISH are: window and ventana. The former is derived from OLD NORSE vindauga which means "wind eye." Similarly, ENGLISH summer and GERMAN Sommer have a common (GERMANIC) origin, whereas FRENCH été and SPANISH verano have different ancestors. Word studies of this type can be carried out

with the help of etymological dictionaries, the Oxford English Dictionary, Grimms Deutsches Wörterbuch, and other works. The similarities in the vocabulary are sometimes counteracted, or even negated, by the dissimilar pronunciation in the different languages. Thus, the learner often really begins to reap the benefits of the "common vocabulary" only after he or she becomes acquainted with the rules of pronunciation and the respective orthography which will be discussed in the first chapter.

The word list above, which contains only a selection of words that start with "a," serves to illustrate how the study of foreign languages tends to make the learners more efficient in their own as well. If a learner is unable to provide the English equivalents for most of the entries, it is not because there are foreign languages involved. Instead, it suggests that his or her English vocabulary is rather limited--a deficiency which diminishes as language study progresses. The recent drop in scores relating to verbal abilities of high school and college students, as revealed in nation-wide tests, may well be partly the result of declining enrollments and cutbacks in foreign language programs in the USA during the last few years. Thus, a reversal of current trends in the area of foreign language study, would be beneficial not only to some special interest groups but to the country as a whole.

Suggested exercise:

In a bi-lingual dictionary, find French, German or Spanish words that look like English ones. Read the definitions. If they are substantially synonymous, enter them in a list of your own (in alphabetical order).

EXAMPLE a: Give the English equivalents for the following German words:

1) Arm	_____	2) bringen	_____
3) braun	_____	4) Butter	_____
5) Ende	_____	6) finden	_____
7) Gott	_____	8) Gold	_____
9) grün	_____	10) Haar	_____
11) Hand	_____	12) Haus	_____
13) Eis	_____	14) Land	_____
15) Mann	_____	16) Markt	_____
17) Milch	_____	18) oft	_____
19) Ring	_____	20) Sand	_____
21) Schuh	_____	22) singen	_____
23) Sohn	_____	24) Sonne	_____
25) warm	_____	26) Wind	_____
27) Winter	_____	28) Weile	_____
29) Wille	_____	30) Wort	_____

EXAMPLE b: Give the English cognates for the following French and Spanish words:

FRENCH	SPANISH	ENGLISH
1) additionnel	adicional	_____
2) affecter	afectar	_____
3) art	arte	_____
4) base	base	_____
5) classe	clase	_____
6) communication	comunicación	_____
7) comparaison	comparación	_____
8) complet	completo	_____
9) compliquer	complicar	_____

FRENCH	SPANISH	ENGLISH
10) compréhension	comprensión	_____
11) constant	constante	_____
12) contentment	contento	_____
13) dialogue	diálogo	_____
14) difficulté	dificultad	_____
15) erreur	error	_____
16) excellent	excelente	_____
17) extérieur	exterior	_____
18) honneur	honor	_____
19) influence	influencia	_____
20) insister	insistir	_____
21) Jean	Juan	_____
22) mentionner	mencionar	_____
23) non	no	_____
24) partie	parte	_____
25) personnel	personal	_____
26) possible	posible	_____
27) prononciation	pronunciación	_____
28) proverbe	proverbio	_____
29) resister	resistir	_____
30) répondre	responder	_____
31) signifier	significar	_____
32) silence	silencio	_____
33) superficiel	superficial	_____
34) train	tren	_____
35) varié, divers	varios	_____

LANGUAGE CONSISTS OF A SET OF HABITS

As a social as well as an individual phenomenon, language has a place among the humanities and the social sciences. Language is a kind of "code" used by a community for oral as well as written communication. It mirrors the culture of the society of speakers who use it, which explains partly, why some words or concepts do not have a true corresponding equivalent in some other languages. Examples: Gemütlichkeit, esprit de corps, gusto, etc.

There are no "primitive" languages. Every language is sufficiently expressive and complete for its users. People who have no need for refrigerators, for example, might not have a word for such an appliance. However, if they happen to live in the Arctic circle, as Eskimos do, they would not get by with only one word for snow. As the need arises, societies either borrow words from another language or coin new ones from elements of the existing language. When borrowing takes place, the word or words in question are usually pronounced according to the sounds and patterns of the language of the borrower. Examples: "chili con carne," "Volkswagen," "laissez-faire," "pronto," etc.

Native speakers of all languages employ a system of "rules" which they have unconsciously learned through constant practice. Thus, it can be said that language consists of a set of habits. To acquire the set of habits which is characteristic of a given language, a learner has to go through a conditioning process for a certain period of time. Since language is not only needed for interpersonal communication but also for the expression of our inner thoughts to ourselves, it follows that an expansion of our communicative ability, either through the acquisition of a larger vocabulary or by learning another language, will broaden and deepen our

capacity to experience and probably adds new dimensions to our over-all awareness.

The writing system of any language is incomplete because it does not indicate melody and pitch of the voice, the rhythm of speech, or the gestures that may accompany speech. Some languages, like English for example, also have a poor correspondence between the sounds and the written symbols, called graphemes. In Spanish, where the correspondence is good, the written symbol "a" usually represents the sound /ä /, but in English, the letter "a" can be pronounced /ɔ / like in law, /æ / like in mat, /ɑ / like in father, or /ə / like in about.[1]

Learning a foreign language involves the acquisition of knowledge in the following basic areas:

1. The sound system, i.e. the pronunciation of vowels, consonants and diphthongs, patterns of intonation, rhythm, stress, and pause (juncture).
2. The grammar system, including:
   a) a knowledge of the forms of words (morphology) which can be modified through inflections to show plurality, possession, tense, etc., or through derivation, i.e., by adding prefixes (lawful/unlawful) suffixes (high/higher), or infixes (pájaro= bird/pajarito=little bird).
   b) syntax, i.e., the order of words, phrases, or clauses in an utterance.
   c) sound changes in an utterance which are the result of some

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[1]The symbols used here to describe different sounds, are taken from the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA).

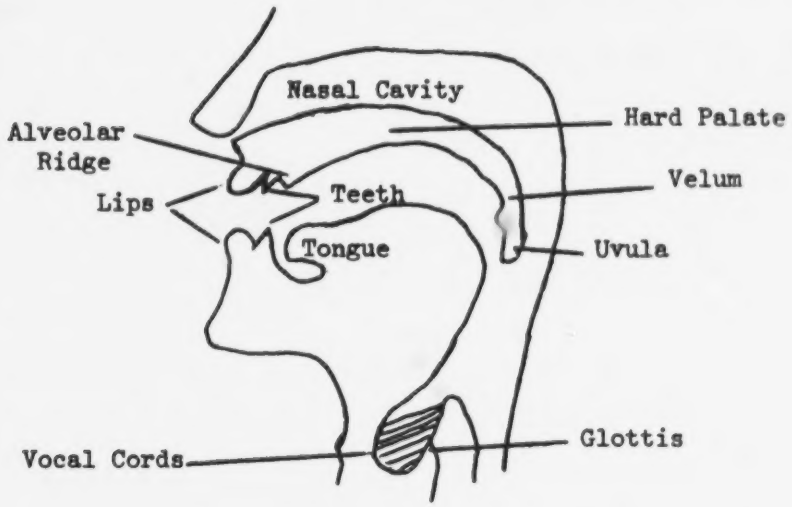
grammatical phenomenon (like plural) and/or by adjacent letters or sounds. Examples: Knife/knives, chez Pierre et Paul/chez eux.

3. The lexical system (vocabulary), involving nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs (content words), and articles plus other determiners, prepositions, auxiliaries, modals, and conjunctions (i.e., words relating to function or structure).

4. The cultural system at least as far as it is reflected in language items and/or vocabulary. For example: The English form of address "you" has two equivalencies in French (tu, vous), three in German (du, Sie, ihr), and four in Spanish (tú, usted, vosotros, ustedes).

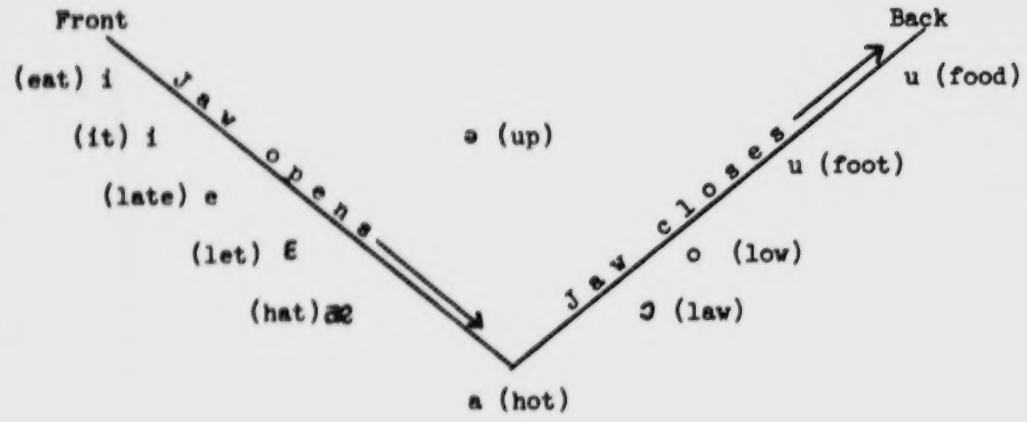
II. Sound Systems and Common Phrases

The following sketch of the vocal organs identifies some of the terms commonly used in describing speech sounds:



The speech sounds or "building blocks" of a language, are customarily divided into vowels, semi-vowels (or semi-consonants: y, w, h), diphthongs, and consonants. They can be categorized according to their acoustical properties. The number of sounds in different languages varies from about thirty to fifty. Some languages, such as English, French and German, are richer in vocalic sounds than other Western tongues; there are eleven vocalic sounds in English, sixteen in French (including four nasals), and fourteen in German, but only five in Spanish, for example.

The principal organs involved in the production of vowel sounds are the vocal cords. The stream of air is usually unobstructed. A diagram known as the "Viëtor Triangle" gives the main vowels and their locus of production:



Examples of semi-vowels (or semi-consonants) are: The initial sound in yoke, wade, and hour.

When a speaker makes a quick transition from one vowel to another while the initial vowel is still in progress, a diphthong results. Examples: ei, eu, ai, etc. If this process is unintentional, then the result is called a "glide." Example: The name "Kay" has the diphthong ay, but if the Spanish word "que" is pronounced the same way, we have a glide (e^{i}) which is wrong in this case. While glides are a common phenomenon in English, they tend to be objectionable and out of place in other languages.

Consonants are usually produced by the interference of the tongue, the teeth and/or the lips, which creates an obstacle for the air stream. Thus, we speak of consonants as "labials" (p, b), "labio-dentals" (f, v), according to their place of articulation. The following chart serves to illustrate further:

A SELECTION OF SOUNDS

PLACE OF ARTICULATION	Non-continuous				Continuous			
	Plosives		Aspirates		Fricatives		Nasals	
	un-voiced	voiced	un-voiced	voiced	un-voiced	voiced	un-voiced	voiced
Labial	p	b					mh	m
Labio-Dental					f	v		
Dental	t	d	th	dh	s θ ʃ	z ð ʒ	nh	n
Front Palatal	k	g			ch			ŋ
Lateral						l		
Palatal-trilled					rh	r		
Uvular-trilled					Rh	R		

The symbols in the chart are taken from the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). In all illustrations and exercises it should be remembered that parallel examples from different languages do not necessarily represent identical sounds but merely a parallelism of symbolic sound values. In the following examples, the phonetic symbol /in slanted brackets/ is that which corresponds to the underlined letters of the words in the same line. Only examples of the more common symbols are given below. (A colon after a sound symbol in brackets or slants indicates length):

	ENGLISH	FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	OTHER
/ a /	hot	patte	hat	paso	_____
/ a: /	father	pâte	Ahne	mañana	_____
/ æ /	hat	--	--	--	_____

	ENGLISH	FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	OTHER
/ b /	bib	bon	Ball	ambas	_____
/ ç /	--	--	Milch	--	_____
/ tʃ /	choice	--	--	chica	_____
/ d /	deed	dans	doch	doblar	_____
/ dʒ /	judge	--	--	--	_____
/ e /	mate	pré	geht	queso	_____
/ ɛ /	set	vedette	hätte	regla	_____
/ ə /	sofa	le	wieder	--	_____
/ f /	fan	faire	für, vier	facil	_____
/ g /	gag	gant	gut	guerra	_____
/ h /	hit, who	--	Haus	jamás	_____
/ x /	--	--	Loch	rojo	_____
/ i /	beat	prix	Lied	chico	_____
/ ɪ /	bit	--	bitten	--	_____
/ j /	you	yeux	jagen	hoyo	_____
/ k /	cook	car	Kamm	loco	_____
/ l /	lip, let	langue	lang	lado	_____
/ ʎ /	--	vielle	--	calle	_____
/ m /	maim	madame	mehr	madre	_____
/ n /	noon	nous	nie	niente	_____
/ ŋ /	sing	--	singen	--	_____
/ o /	goat	faux	Lob	adobe	_____
/ ɔ /	jaw	sole	--	---	_____
/ ø /	--	deux	schön	---	_____
/ œ /	--	soeur	löscht	---	_____
/ p. /	pet	pour	Post	padre	_____

	ENGLISH	FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	OTHER
/ r /	--	--	rein	perro	_____
/ ɹ /	read	--	--	--	_____
/ R /	--	rue	Waren	--	_____
/ ɾ /	--	--	--	pero	_____
/ s /	sink	cent	lassen	señora	_____
/ ʃ /	shoe	chat	Schuh	--	_____
/ t /	tot	ton	tot	tuyo	_____
/ θ /	ether	--	--	cerca (Castilian)	_____
/ ð /	either	--	--	boda	_____
/ u /	pool	sourd	Rum	lujo	_____
/ β /	--	--	--	Cuba, volar	_____
/ ɥ /	--	depuis, huit	--	--	_____
/ v /	vine	vin	Wein	--	_____
/ w /	wail	oiseau, oui	--	hueso	_____
/ y /	--	tu	Hütte	--	_____
/ z /	zones	zèbre	Sohn	--	_____
/ ʒ /	vision	legère, Jean	Genie	--	_____

DIPHTHONGS AND NASALS

English: /ey/ faith, /ay/ bite, /oy/ toy, /uw/ loot, boot

French: / œ̃ / brun, / ɛ̃ / vin, / ɔ̃ / bon, / ɑ̃ / dent

German: / ai / Seite, /oi/ Beute, /au/ Laute

Spanish: /ey/ ley, /ay/ hay, /oy/ soy, /au/ astronauta

Other:

It can be seen from this list of sounds and illustrative word examples that there is rarely an exact corresponding equivalence between any two languages. It must also be borne in mind that the written symbols of most languages are merely approximations at best. Even in Spanish, where the correspondence between the spoken sound and the written symbol is considered to be good, Tomás Navarro, in his book Manuel de pronunciación española (Madrid, 1932), proposed a twenty-vowel system for Spanish: six for "a," three for "e," four for "i," three for "o," and four for "u." This means that the foreign language learner must approach his task carefully and with a receptiveness toward new sounds which are represented by familiar symbols or letters. Imposing the sounds of one's own native tongue upon the target language produces a new dialect which would be understood by no one.

EXAMPLE: Try reading any of the preceding sentences the way a mono-lingual Frenchman, German or Spaniard would, or have a mono-lingual speaker of English read a sentence in any of the given languages to a native and see if he or she will understand its content.

Before going through the French, German and Spanish alphabets individually, attention should be called to certain sounds which tend to be troublesome for speakers of English. The English "L" sound for example, does not occur in any of the languages discussed. The "L" sound of French, German and Spanish is more like the one English speakers need to produce in a rapid succession as in the song "Tis the season to be jolly, la-la-la-la-la-la-la-la-la-la." Compare the "L" of the word "jolly" with the succeeding ones. Notice that the tongue flattens out and "taps" the alveolar ridge. The result is an acceptable "L" in French, German, or Spanish.

What has been said about the English "L" also applies to the "r." Foreigners learning English have to learn this medially produced "r" sound if they have been accustomed to producing either the apical (frontal) /r/ or the uvular one /R/. In French, the latter prevails, in German both, and in Spanish the former; but one must distinguish between a single flap apical /r/ like in pero (but) and a trilled apical /r/ like in perro (dog). The single flap "r" can be produced by going through the motions of saying the nonsense-word "pedo" rapidly. For the trilled "r," the tongue should be positioned as for a "d" sound and when air is forced out over the tongue, it will bounce against the alveolar ridge. Add voice (make the vocal cords swing) and voilà - there it is! The uvular (R), which is indispensible in French can be produced by going through the motions of gargling. Either the apical or the uvular "r" is acceptable in German. Some speakers use both, depending on adjacent sounds. Intervocalically, the uvular "r" seems to be more convenient for some. In initial position and after certain sounds, like "m" for example, the apical "r" is often favored. Regionally, the apical "r" predominates in South Germany, and the uvular one in northern and central areas.

The nasalized sounds like / $\tilde{a}$ / in enfant (child) or / $\tilde{o}$ / in bon (good, well) occur only in French; mutated vowels (umlaut) like / y / in üben (to exercise) also occur in German. The best way to produce the "ü" / y / sound is to hold an / i / sound, then round and project the lips. The lips of English speakers tend to be too passive, compared to speakers of other languages. Therefore, this sound and the "ö" / ø / or / œ / sound need to be practiced by those learning French or German. The "ö" sound, like in French soeur and German Söhne can be produced in the same manner as described above for the "ü" except that

one needs to start out with / e /.

A comprehensive introduction to all the sounds of a given foreign language is usually found in the preliminary section of any good beginning textbook. Therefore, no attempt is made here to go beyond a brief overview of the French, German, and Spanish alphabets, respectively.

THE FRENCH ALPHABET:

Letter of Alphabet	Pronun-ciation	Phonetic Symbol	Word Sample	Translation of Sample
a	ah	/ a /	madame	lady
a	a	/ ɑ /	classe	class
b	bé (bay)	/ b /	bonjour	"hello"
c	cé (say)	/ s /	ce	this, that
		/ k /	cadeau	gift
d	dé (day)	/ d /	de	of
e	e (uh)	/ e /	aller	to go
		/ ɛ /	père	father
f	effe	/ f /	femme	woman
g	gé (zhay)	/ g /	garçon	boy
h	hache (ahsh)	(mute letter in French)		
i	i (ee)	/ i /	livre	book
j	ji (zhee)	/ j /	papier	paper
k	kah	/ k /	kilo	kilogram
l	elle	/ l /	liste	list
m	emme	/ m /	manger	to eat
n	enne	/ n /	nous	we, us
o	o (oh)	/ ɔ /	homme	man
		/ o /	eau	water

Letter of Alphabet	Pronun-ciation	Phonetic Symbol	Word Sample	Translation of Sample
p	pé (pay)	/ p /	soupe	soup
q	ku (kew)	/ k /	que	what
r	erre (aire)	/ R /	vivre	to live
s	esse	/ s /	sa	his, her
t	té (tay)	/ t /	table, thé	table, tea
u	u (ew)	/ u /	ou	or
v	vé	/ v /	voir	to see
w	double vé (doo-bluh-vay)	/ w /	oui	yes
x	iks (eeks)	/ks /	expliquer	to explain
		/gs /	examen	test, exam
		/ s /	six	six
		/ z /	dix-huit	eighteen
y	i grec (ee grek)	/ i /	cygne	swan
z	zède (zed)	/ z /	zone	zone

The following accent marks are used in French: "accent aigu" like in école (school), "accent grave" like in mère (mother), "accent circonflex" like in être (to be). They have nothing to do with stress, as the accent mark does in Spanish. Instead, they relate to the quality of the sound. The circumflex accent often appears where the word used to contain an "s." Thus, it often serves to show relatedness to other words. If we insert an "s" in être, for example, we get "estre" which reveals a kinship with the Spanish verb estar (to be). One other symbol or diacritic mark used in French is the cedilla (¸) which, when attached to a "c" indicates that it has an "s" sound, rather than a "k" sound in front of an "a" for example, like in the word "français" (French).

Suggested EXERCISE:

A. With the help of the explanations given above, try to pronounce the following borrowed terms in a native French manner, then supply the English meanings (from Webster's, if necessary):

1) Amour-propre_____

2) Avant-garde_____

3) Bon vivant_____

4) Carte blanche_____

5) Coup de grâce_____

6) Coup d'état_____

7) Déjà vu_____

8) Dernier cri_____

9) Deshabille_____

10) Détente_____

11) Echelon_____

12) Enfant terrible_____

13) En rapport_____

14) Esprit de corps_____

15) Fait accompli_____

16) Faux pas_____

17) Femme fatale_____

18) Fin de siècle_____

19) Joie de vivre_____

20) Laissez-faire_____

21) Mélange_____

22) Ménage_____

23) Noblesse oblige_____

24) Nom de plume_____

25) Nouveaux riches_____

26) Petit bourgeois_____

27) Potpourri_____

28) Raison d'être_____

29) Rapprochement_____

30) Réclame_____

31) Sang-froid_____

32) Sans_____

33) Savoir-faire_____

34) Tête-à-tête_____

35) Touché_____

36) Vis-à-vis_____

B. Now write ten of these terms from dictation (with books open).

COMMON EXPRESSIONS IN FRENCH (English equivalents are figurative, not literal).

1. Greetings

--Bonjour, Monsieur (mademoiselle, madame)
How do you do, sir (miss, madam)

--Comment allez-vous?
How are you?

--Très bien, merci, et vous?
Fine, thank you, and you?

--Très bien, merci.
Fine, thank you.

"Vous" is used for addressing superiors, strangers, elders, etc. It is a formal form of address. The familiar form used among friends, classmates, family members, etc., is "tu," "toi," (Engl.: thou, thee), etc.:

--Bonjour, Marie, Comment vas-tu?
Hello, Marie, How are you?

--Très bien, merci, et toi?
Fine, thanks. And you?

The colloquial form is:

--Salut, mon vieux. (Salut, Robert)
Hi, pal. (Hi, Robert.)

--Comment ça va? (Ça va?)
How are things? etc.

--Pas mal, merci, Et toi?
Not bad, thanks. And you?

--Comme ci, comme ça.
So-so.

2. Upon Departing

--Au revoir, monsieur.
Good-bye.

--A demain
See you tomorrow.

--A bientôt
See you soon

--A tout à l'heure
So long. See you later.

In French, the titles monsieur, mademoiselle, and madame are used rather liberally. Often, the last name is added.

3. Expressing Thanks

--Merci bien, monsieur.
Thank you very much. (Formal)

--Je vous en prie (monsieur).
You are welcome. (Formal)

--Merci, mon vieux.
Thanks, old buddy. (Informal)

--Il n'y a pas de quoi.
Don't mention it. (Either)

THE GERMAN ALPHABET:

Letter of Alphabet	Pronunciation	Phonetic Transcription	Word Sample	Translation of Sample
a	ah	/ a /	Eva	Eve
b	be (bay)	/ b /	Bäcker	baker
c	ce (tsay)	/ ts /	Cäsar	Ceasar

Letter of Alphabet	Pronunciation	Phonetic Transcription	Word Sample	Translation of Sample
d	de (day)	/ d /	Dorn	thorn
e	e (a)	/ e /	Ebbe	ebb
f	ef	/ f /	Foto	photo
g	ge (gay)	/ g /	Gans	goose
h	ha	/ h /	Haus	house
i	i (ee)	/ i /	in	in
j	jot (yot)	/ j /	jung	young
k	ka	/ k /	König	king
l	el	/ l /	Lilie	lily
m	em	/ m /	Maschine	machine
n	en	/ n /	Nacht	night
o	oh	/ o /	offen	open
p	pe	/ p /	Papier	paper
q	ku	/ k /	Quelle	well
r	er	/ r /	Rolle	role
s	es	/z /	sagen	say
t	te (tay)	/ t /	Tat	deed
u	u (oo)	/ u /	unser	our
v	vau (fau)	/ f /	Vater	father
w	we (vey)	/ v /	Wasser	water
x	iks	/ ks /	Mexiko	Mexico
y	üpsilon	/ y /	Zypern	Cypress
z	zet (tset)	/ ts /	zehn	ten

English-speaking learners need to be reminded to pronounce the German "z" like the first and third sound in "tsetse" fly. For example, the preposition "zu" /tsu/ should never sound like "zoo" but like "tsoo" instead. Also, the "w" is pronounced like a "v" and the "v" and the "f" are both pronounced "f."

Suggested EXERCISE:

A. With the help of a good dictionary, try to pronounce the following loan-words the way a native German would say them, then give their English meanings:

1) auf Wiedersehen_____

2) Autobahn_____

3) Doppelgänger_____

4) Ersatz_____

5) Führer_____

6) Gesundheit_____

7) Herr_____

8) Kamerad_____

9) Kultur_____

10) Lawine_____

11) Lebensraum_____

12) Lorelei_____

13) Luftwaffe_____

14) Märchen_____

15) Panzer_____

16) Prosit_____

17) Reich_____

18) Rucksack_____

19) Schnapps_____

20) Schnauzer_____

21) Schnitzel_____

22) Schnorkel_____

23) Schwerpunkt_____

24) Stahlhelm_____

25) Sturm und Drang_____

26) Torte_____

27) Ursprache_____

28) verboten_____

29) Volkslied_____

30) Volkswagen_____

31) Wanderlust_____

32) Wehrmacht_____

33) Weltanschauung_____

34) Weltschmerz_____

35) Wienerwurst_____

36) Zeitgeist_____

B. Now write ten of these words from dictation (with books open).

COMMON EXPRESSIONS IN GERMAN (English equivalents are figurative, not literal):

1. Greetings

--Guten Tag, Frau (Herr, Fräulein) Müller?
How do you do, Mrs. (Mr., Miss) Mueller?

--Wie geht es Ihnen?
How are you?

--Danke, gut. Und Ihnen?
Fine, thank you, and you?

--Gut, danke.
Fine, thank you.

In German, like in French and Spanish, a formal (Sie, Ihnen) or a familiar (du, dir, etc.) form of address is used. The proper use of one or the other is regarded as a manifestation of good manners. At first, it is safest to address everyone except children formally. As friendships with natives develop, their expressions can serve as a guide. An informal conversational exchange may be as follows:

--Guten Tag, Robert. Wie geht's?
Hi, Robert. How are things?

--Nicht schlecht. Wie geht's dir?
Not bad. How are you?

-- Auch gut.
The same.

2. Upon Departing

--Auf Wiedersehen, Herr (Frau, Fräulein) Schmidt.
Good-bye, Mr. (Mrs., Miss) Schmidt.

--Bis morgen.
Until tomorrow.

--"Tschüss," Robert (colloquial-North)
So long, Robert.

--"Pfüat Gott" (colloquial-South)
May god keep you.

3. Expressing Thanks

--Vielen Dank, Frau (Herr, Fräulein Meier).
Thank you very much, Mrs. (Mr., Miss Meier).

--Bitte sehr (or bitte schön).
You are welcome.

--Gern geschehen.
I was happy to do it for you.

THE SPANISH ALPHABET:

Letter of Alphabet	Pronunciation	Phonetic Transcription	Word Sample	Translation of Sample
a	a	/ a /	agua	water
b	be (larga) (bilabial v)	/ b /	bien Habana	good Havana
c	ce	/ s / / k /	cierto casa	certain house
ch	che	/ tʃ /	lechuga	lettuce
d	de	/ d / / ð /	duda duda	doubt doubt
e	e	/ e /	eso	this, that

Letter of Alphabet	Pronunciation	Phonetic Transcription	Word Sample	Translation of Sample
f	efe	/ f /	foto	photo
g	ge	/ g /	guantes	gloves
		/ h /	gente	people
h	hache	(silent)	honrado	honorable
i	i (ee)	/ i /	isla	island
j	jota	/ h /	junta	junta
k	ka	/ k /	kilómetro	kilometer
l	ele	/ l /	luna	moon
ll	elle	/ j /	llena	full (of)
m	eme	/ m /	madre	mother
n	ene	/ n /	nueve	nine
ñ	eñe	/ ñ /	niño	little boy
o	o	/ o /	oro	gold
p	pe	/ p /	padre	father
q	cu	/ k /	queso	cheese
r	ere	/ r /	pero	but
rr	erre	/ r /	perro	dog
s	ese	/ s /	sonido	sound
t	te	/ t /	teatro	theater
u	u (oo)	/ u /	uno	one
v	ve or uve	/ b /	vaca	cow
w	doble ve	/ w /	cuando	when
x	equis	/ h /	Mexico	Mexico
		/ ks /	extranjero	stranger
y	i griega	/ j /	yo	I
z	zeta	/ s /	zapato	shoe

The "z" is never voiced in Spanish, even when it occurs inter-vocalically: taza /tasa/ (cup).

Suggested EXERCISE:

A. Look up the proper pronunciation of the following Spanish words in Webster's Collegiate Dictionary as you match them with the English definitions given below (write the appropriate letter in each of the blanks):

1) acequia	_____	a) the chick-pea
2) aficionado	_____	b) a gold mine, a stroke of good luck
3) auto da fé	_____	c) man, fellow
4) bonanza	_____	ch) bullfight
5) cantina	_____	d) council, committee
6) caudillo	_____	e) second - degree nobleman
7) chaparejos	_____	f) lady
8) corrida	_____	g) "act of the faith," sentence given by the inquisition
9) doña	_____	h) irrigating trench
10) garbanzo	_____	i) strongman
11) hidalgo	_____	j) chief
12) hombre	_____	k) amateur, fan
13) jefe	_____	l) canteen, saloon + store house
14) junta	_____	ll) flaps worn by cowboys
15) mañana	_____	m) gold and silver
16) morro	_____	n) hotel, inn
17) oro y plata	_____	ñ) Mrs.
18) palabra	_____	o) tomorrow
19) posada	_____	p) a word, hence: palaver
20) señor	_____	q) mister

21) señora	_____	r) hot Mediterranean wind
22) señorita	_____	rr) round hill
23) solano	_____	s) miss, young lady
24) torero	_____	t) wheat
25) tortilla	_____	u) cowboy
26) trigo	_____	v) bullfighter on foot
27) vaquero	_____	w) thin flat cake

B. Now, with books closed, write ten of these words from dictation.

COMMON EXPRESSIONS IN SPANISH (English equivalents are figurative, not literal):

1. Greetings

--Buenos dias, señor (señora, señorita) Gonzales. ¿Como esta usted?
How do you do, Mr. (Mrs., Miss) Conzales. How are you?

--Muy bien, gracias. ¿Y usted?
Very well, thank you. And you?

--Bien, gracias.
Fine, thank you.

Friends and members of the same family address each other in the familiar form (tu rather than usted).

--Hola, Emilio ¿Que pasa?
Hi, Emil. What's up?

--Nada.
Nothing.

--¿Como estás?
How are you?

--Asi asi. ¿Y tu?
So so. And you?

--Muy bien, gracias.
Fine, thank you.

In Spanish, punctuation is largely the same as in English. However, before questions and exclamations, the reader is alerted to the need for appropriate intonation by an inverted question or exclamation mark.

2. Upon Departing

--Hasta la vista.
Good-bye.

--Hasta luego.
See you later.

--Hasta mañana.
Until tomorrow.

--"Chao" (from Italian)

3. Expressing Thanks

--Muchas gracias, señor (señora, señorita).
Thank you very much, Mr. (Mrs., Miss).

--De nada.
Don't mention it.

"Por favor" means "please" in Spanish. The French and German equivalents are "s'il vous plaît" and "bitte."

III. Comparing Names and Denotations

One manifestation of the multi-ethnic origin of American society presents itself in the given multitude of names in a variety of forms. The study of the origin and forms of proper names of persons or places constitutes a category of the science of onomastics. However, even without a specialized knowledge, it is often possible to make valid associations between representative forms in different languages, as can be seen in sections below. What tends to confuse some of those who are unfamiliar with other languages often is not so much the spelling, but rather, the pronunciation. The name Peter, for example, is spelled identically in English and German; but in the latter, it is pronounced "pay-ta," rather than "pee-der." This serves to illustrate that sometimes, the only real difference between languages is, in fact, pronunciation.

Suggested EXERCISE

A. With the help of a gazeteer, or the "Pronouncing Gazeteer" section in Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, try to pronounce the following geographic names authentically:

FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	OTHER
1) Besançon	1) Aachen	1) Cuba	_____
2) Cherbourg	2) Berlin	2) Guadalajara	_____
3) Lyon	3) Dresden	3) La Paz	_____
4) Marseilles	4) Frankfurt	4) Mexico	_____
5) Montreal	5) Graz	5) Monterrey	_____
6) Nancy	6) Hamburg	6) Panamá	_____
7) Orleans	7) Leipzig	7) Paraguay	_____
8) Paris	8) Luzern	8) Puerto Rico	_____
9) Rouen	9) Potsdam	9) Quito	_____
10) Somme	10) Worms	10) Santo Domingo	_____

B. Give the English (and/or other) version of each of the following proper names. If you need help, consult a bi-lingual dictionary.

FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ENGLISH	OTHER
Alexandre	Alexander	Alejandro	_____	_____
Charlot	Karl	Carlos	_____	_____
Édouard	Eduard	Eduardo	_____	_____
Étienne	Stefan	Esteban	_____	_____
Françoise	Franziska	Francisca	_____	_____
George	Georg	Jorge	_____	_____
Guillaume	Wilhelm	Guillermo	_____	_____
Henri	Heinrich	Enrique	_____	_____
Jacques	Jakob	Jaime	_____	_____
Jean	Johann, Hans	Juan	_____	_____
Jeanne	Johanna	Juana	_____	_____
Laurent	Lorenz	Lorenzo	_____	_____
Marguerite	Grete, Gretchen	Margarita	_____	_____
Mat(t)hieu	Matthias	Mateo	_____	_____
Michel	Michael	Miguel	_____	_____
Nicolas	Nikolaus	Nicolás	_____	_____
Pierre	Peter	Pedro	_____	_____
Thibau(l)t	Theobald	Teobaldo	_____	_____

C. Look up the names of the members of your family to see what they might have been called if they had been born and raised in a French-, German-, or Spanish-speaking country.

D. Enter the corresponding English names of 1) the seasons, 2) the months, and 3) the days of the week. Compare them and study the spelling as you pronounce them in imitation of your instructor or a bi-lingual informant.

FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ENGLISH	OTHER
Saisons	Jahreszeiten	Estaciones	Seasons	
printemps	Frühling	primavera	_____	_____
été	Sommer	verano	_____	_____
automne	Herbst	otoño	_____	_____
hiver	Winter	invierno	_____	_____
Mois	Monate	Meses	Months	
janvier	Januar	enero	_____	_____
février	Februar	febrero	_____	_____
mars	März	marzo	_____	_____
avril	April	abril	_____	_____
mai	Mai	mayo	_____	_____
juin	Juni	junio	_____	_____
juilliet	Juli	julio	_____	_____
août	August	agosto	_____	_____
septembre	September	septiembre	_____	_____
octobre	Oktober	octubre	_____	_____
novembre	November	noviembre	_____	_____
décembre	Dezember	diciembre	_____	_____
Jours de la semaine	Wochentage	Días de la Semana	Days of the week	
lundi	Montag	lunes	_____	_____
mardi	Dienstag	martes	_____	_____
mercredi	Mittwoch	miércoles	_____	_____
jeudi	Donnerstag	jueves	_____	_____
vendredi	Freitag	viernes	_____	_____
samedi	Samstag, Sonnabend	sábado	_____	_____
dimanche	Sonntag	domingo	_____	_____

Holidays

In some countries where the majority of the population follows the same faith, religious holidays may be celebrated nationally. The main legal and religious holidays in most French-, German-, and Spanish-speaking countries are as follows:

FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	(TRANSLATION)
Nouvel an	Neujahr	Año Nuevo	New Year
Epiphanie	Drei Könige	Epifanía	Epiphany
Vendredi-Saint	Karfreitag	Viernes Santo	Good Friday
Pâques	Ostern	Oía de Pascua	Easter
Fête du Travail	Tag der Arbeit	Día del Trabajo	Labor Day (5/1)
Pentecôte	Pfingsten	Pentecostés	White Sunday
Ascension	Himmelfahrtstag	Ascensión	Ascension Thursday
Fête-Dieu	Fronleichnamstag	Corpus Christi	Corpus Christi Day
Fête Nationale (7/14)	Tag der nationalen Einheit(6/17)	Día del Alzamiento Nacional (Spain: 7/18)	National Holiday
Toussaint	Allerheiligen	Todos los Santos	All Saints Day
Noël	Weihnacht	Navidad	Christmas
Saint-Etienne	Stefanitag	Día del Santo Esteban	St. Stephen's Day
Saint-Sylvestre	Sylvester	Víspera del año nuevo	New-Year's Eve

The listing above is not strictly chronological because some of the holidays are observed on different days in different countries. Also, Corpus Christi Day, Assumption Day, and All Saints Day are not observed nationally in all countries. However, contrary to the custom in the USA, Easter Monday, Pentecost Monday, and St. Stephen's Day are legal holidays (with full pay) in most countries. In general, the nationally observed holidays in Western European countries tend to be more numerous than in the United States of America.

NUMBERS AND COUNTING

A. Repeat after your instructor. Enter the English equivalents in the blank spaces.

FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ENGLISH	OTHER
Cardinal Numbers				
zéro	null	cero	_____	_____
un, une	eins	uno	_____	_____
deux	zwei /tsvai/	dos	_____	_____
trois	drei	tres	_____	_____
quatre	vier	cuatro	_____	_____
cinq	fünf	cinco	_____	_____
six	sechs	seis	_____	_____
sept	sieben	siete	_____	_____
huit	acht /axt/	ocho	_____	_____
neuf	neun	nueve	_____	_____
dix	zehn /tse:n/	diez	_____	_____
onze	elf	once	_____	_____
douze	zwölf	doce	_____	_____
treize	dreizehn	trece	_____	_____
quatorze	vierzehn	catorce	_____	_____
quinze	fünfzehn	quince	_____	_____
seize	sechzehn /zeçtse:n/	dieciseis	_____	_____
dix-sept	siebzehn	diecisiete	_____	_____
dix-huit	achtzehn	dieciocho	_____	_____
dix-neuf	neunzehn	diecinueve	_____	_____
vingt	zwanzig	veinte	_____	_____

FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ENGLISH	OTHER
vingt et un	einundzwanzig	veintiuno		
vingt-deux	zweiundzwanzig	veintidós		
vingt-trois	dreiundzwanzig	veintitrés		
vingt-quatre	vierundzwanzig	veinticuatro		
vingt-cinq	fünfundzwanzig	veinticinco		
vingt-six	sechsundzwanzig	veintiseis		
vingt-sept	siebenundzwanzig	veintisiete		
vingt-huit	achtundzwanzig	veintiocho		
vingt-neuf	neunundzwanzig	veintinueve		
trente	dreissig	treinta		
trente et un	einunddreissig	treinta y uno		
trente-deux etc.	zweiunddreissig etc.	treinta y dos etc.		
quarante etc.	vierzig etc.	cuarenta etc.		
cinquante etc.	fünfzig etc.	cincuenta etc.		
soixante etc.	sechzig etc.	sesenta etc.		
soixante-dix	siebzig	setenta		
soixante et onze	einundsiebzig	setenta y uno		
soixante-douze etc.	zweiundsiebzig etc.	setenta y dos etc.		
quatre-vingt	achtzig	ochenta		
quatre-vingt-un	einundachtzig	ochenta y uno		
quatre-vingt-deux etc.	zweiundachtzig etc.	ochenta y dos etc.		
quatre-vingt-dix	neunzig	noventa		
quatre-vingt-onze	einundneunzig	noventa y uno		
quatre-vingt-douze etc.	zweiundneunzig etc.	noventa y dos etc.		

FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ENGLISH	OTHER
cent	hundert	cien		
cent un	hunderteins	ciento-uno		
cent deux etc.	hundertzwei etc.	ciento-dos etc.		
cent dix etc.	hundertzehn etc.	ciento-diez etc.		
cent quatre-vingt-dix	hundertneunzig	ciento-noventa		
deux cents	zweihundert	doscientos		
trois cents etc.	dreihundert etc.	trescientos etc.		
mille	tausend	mil		
mille cent	tausendeinhundert	mil-cien		
mille deux cents	tausendzweihundert	mil-doscientos		
deux mille	zweitausend	dos-mil		
trois mille etc.	dreitausend etc.	tres-mil etc.		
un million	eine Million	un millón		
un milliard	eine Milliarde	mil millones		
un trillion	eine Billion	un millón de millones		
un quintillion	eine Trillion	mil millones de millones		

Ordinal Numbers

premier (1 er)	erste	primero		
deuxième (2 e)	zweite	segundo		
troisième (3 e)	dritte	tercero		
quatrième	vierte	cuarto		
cinquième	fünfte	quinto		
sixième	sechste	sexto		

FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ENGLISH	OTHER
septième	siebente	séptimo	_____	_____
huitième	achte	octavo	_____	_____
neuvième	neunte	noveno	_____	_____
dixième	zehnte	décimo	_____	_____

In French and Spanish, ordinal numbers are used much less frequently than in English and German. For example, the date "4th of July, 1977" is written and pronounced as follows in the three languages:

FRENCH: 4 (quatre) juillet 1977 (mil neuf cent soixante dix-sept)

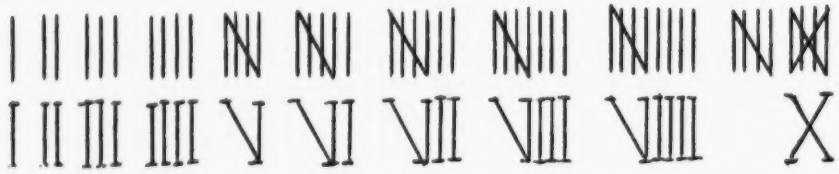
GERMAN: 4. (vierte) Juli 1977 (neunzehnhundert siebenundsiebzig)

SPANISH: 4 (cuatro) de julio 1977 (mil novecientos setenta y siete).

OTHER:

By comparing the various systems of counting, it becomes apparent that the "teens" are characteristic of English and German, and incidentally, up to seventeen, also of Latin: septemdecim. Eighteen and nineteen represent subtractions from twenty: duodeviginti (two-from-twenty) and undeviginti (one-from-twenty). In French and Spanish, the process of adding to ten, to twenty, and so on, begins at seventeen and sixteen, respectively. From twenty-one upward, German is akin to one of the two options in Latin: 1) unus et viginti, and 2) viginti unus. German "einundzwanzig" corresponds to the first Latin form, "one-and-twenty," which is often regarded as "backwards" by speakers of other languages. Another deviation can be observed in the French way of counting from seventy (sixty-ten) to ninety-nine (four twenties nineteen) which seems "awkward" to some people even though the French, obviously, have been getting along with it very nicely.

An inquiry about the reasons for some of the differences in the number systems of English, French, German and Spanish takes us back into history. Different ancient societies developed their own ways of counting and of number notation. Existing modern systems reflect varying amounts of borrowing from older methods of counting. For example, the different way of counting beyond sixty in French was apparently derived from the Babylonian system in which sixty was a kind of "cut-off" point. The Babylonians used a cuneiform (wedge-shaped) notation. Other early forms of notation consisted of simple straight diagonal, horizontal and/or vertical lines. For example, the Roman numerals are easily conceivable as an "out-growth" or abstraction of a common tally method:



One of the advantages of the Roman system of number symbols was its simplicity. With a total of only seven symbols (I for 1, V for 5, X for 10, L for 50, C for 100, D for 500, M for 1000, and $\bar{M}$ for 1,000,000), all numbers from one to a million can be expressed. However, its drawback is that is is not suitable for rapid written calculations.

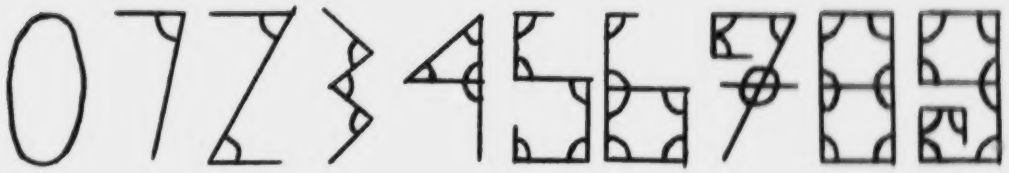
The ancient Greeks had two parallel systems of numerals. The older one was based on the initial letters of the names of numbers. For example, the name for "five" begins with a "p" in Greek, and the name for "ten" begins with a "d." Thus, the Greek symbol π (pi) stood for the numeral "five" and Δ (delta) for "ten," etc. The later Greek system was based upon that of the Pheonicians. In the Phoenician alphabet, the first nine

letters of the alphabet were assigned the numbers one through nine. The next nine were assigned the values of ten, twenty, thirty, etc., up to ninety. That left four letters (out of a total of twenty-two). They were assigned the values 100, 200, 300 and 400. By adopting additional letters, the Greeks expanded the system to include symbols for 500, 600, 700, 800, and 900. At 1000, they started to count from the beginning again. The Phoenicians had to start at the beginning when they had reached 499 because they only had twenty-two letters:

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	JA	JB	JC	JD	JE	JF	etc.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	

K	KA	KB	KC	etc.	L...	M...	N...	O	etc.	S
20	21	22	23		30	40	50	60		100

The so-called "Arabic" system of number notation which is in use in most parts of the world today was really developed by the Hindus. It was already in use in India during the 3rd century B.C. The Arab world adopted it during the 7th and 8th centuries, and the Europeans during the 10th. The important innovation in the Arabic system is the use of positional notation in which individual number symbols assume different values according to their position in the written numeral. Positional notation was made possible through the adoption of a symbol for zero. It makes differentiation between 11, 101, 1001, etc. possible without the use of additional symbols. Another positive feature of the Arabic system is that <u>all</u> numbers can be expressed with only ten symbols. Originally, these symbols reflected their numerical values by the number of angles each one had:



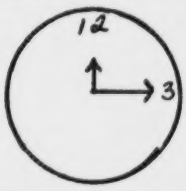
The original shape of the numbers is more apparent in German orthography for example, where a "1" (one) has a "hook," and a "7" (seven) a "crossbar." These features also help avoid getting the "one" confused with a slanted bar, or the uncrossed "seven" with a "one."

Telling Time

Sun-dials, hour-glasses, and water-clocks were among the earliest time pieces constructed by man. More elaborate chronometers with wheels are not mentioned in historic accounts until the 13th century. The pendulum as a pacer was introduced in 1656 by the Dutch physicist, mathematician and astronomer, Christian Huygens (1629-1695).

In chronology, the period of time required for one rotation of the earth on its axis is called jour in FRENCH Tag in GERMAN, día in SPANISH and _____ in ENGLISH. Each day is divided into exactly 24 hours = 1440 minutes = 86400 seconds (=the length of the solar day which is averaged out over a period of a year). Until the 18th century an hour was usually taken as the twelfth part of the period between sunrise and sunset (according to Jewish faith, between sunset and sunrise). It obviously varied with the season, and in technologically advanced societies of today where many things tend to be planned right up to the minute, it may well seem like an impossible condition for existence. Others who are weary of the so-called present-day "rat race" might view the bygone era with a special kind of nostalgia. Whichever may be the case, here are some

ways in which people have been telling time in FRENCH, GERMAN and SPANISH for centuries. Supply ENGLISH (or other) equivalents in the blanks as you repeat after your instructor:



minuit et quart
viertel nach zwölf
las doce y cuarto

_____

une heure vingt-cinq
ein Uhr fünfundzwanzig
la una y veinticinco

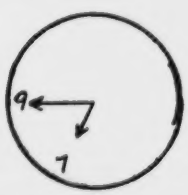
_____

quatre heures et demie
halb fünf or vier Uhr dreissig
las cuatro y media

_____

six heures moins vingt
zwanzig vor sechs
las seis menos veinte

_____



sept heur moins le quart
viertel vor sieben or dreiviertel sieben
las siete menos cuarto

_____

dix heures
zehn Uhr
las diez

_____

The designations A.M. and P.M. are generally not used in FRENCH, GERMAN or SPANISH. To make corresponding indications, either the twenty-four hour clock system is employed or phrases as follows:

FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ENGLISH	OTHER
le(au) matin	morgens	por la mañana	in the morning	_____
de jour	während des Tages	durante el día	during the day	_____
l'après midi	nachmittags	por la tarde	in the afternoon	_____
le soir	abends	por la noche	in the evening	_____
la nuit	nachts	" " "	at night	_____

Other Expressions Relating to Time

hier	gestern	ayer	yesterday	_____
aujourd'hui	heute	hoy	today	_____
demain	morgen	mañana	tomorrow	_____
il y a deux jours	vor zwei Tagen	hace dos días	two days ago	_____
dans trois jours	in drei Tagen	en tres días	in three days	_____
la semaine passée	vorige Woche	la semana pasada	last week	_____
la semaine prochaine	nächste Woche	la semana próxima	next week	_____
pendent quinze jours	in zwei Wochen or in vierzehn Tagen	por una quincena	in two weeks	_____
maintenant	jetzt	ahora	now	_____
souvent	oft	à menudo	often	_____
jamais	nie	nunca	never	_____
toujours	immer	siempre	always	_____
parfois	manchmal	a veces	sometimes	_____
alors	dann	entonces	then	_____
Quelle heure est-il?	Wieviel Uhr ist es?	¿Que hora es?	What time is it?	_____
tard	spät	tarde	late	_____
de bonne heure or tôt	früh	temprano	early	_____

FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ENGLISH	OTHER
après	nachher	después	afterwards	_____
avant	vorher	antes	before	_____
minuit	Mitternacht	medianoche	midnight	_____
midi	Mittag	mediodía	noon	_____
minute	Minute	minuto	minute	_____
seconde	Sekunde	segundo	second	_____
quart d'heure	Viertelstunde	cuarto de hora	quarter of an hour	_____
demi-heure	halbe Stunde	media hora	half an hour	_____
Geographic Directions				
nord	nord	norte		_____
est	ost	este		_____
ouest	west	oeste		_____
sud or midi	süd	mediodía, sud or sur		_____

IV. People and Concepts

BASES OF LANGUAGE SELECTION

It has been said that one speaks ENGLISH to people, FRENCH to horses, GERMAN to dogs, and SPANISH to God. Whichever might be the case, the fact remains that all of these language have been and are being studied for other reasons, too. Traditionally, FRENCH has been regarded as the "language of diplomats." It also enjoys prestige as a "language of culture," which covers many aspects from fashions to philosophy. As a research tool, it is especially valued in the areas of physics and chemistry. Its commercial usefulness is also quite apparent when one takes into account that it is the primary or a secondary language in nearly forty countries (see listing in the next section).

GERMAN ranks high among the foreign languages commonly studied in Western and Eastern countries, including the Soviet Union. In the United States, it was the most popular modern foreign language in many areas before WWI. Since then, Spanish has become the primary choice nationally. However, numerically German managed to regain its former status by the late 1960's when approximately one out of four Americans studying a foreign language was taking German. Among the reasons students listed for studying German, there were the traditional ones, like family heritage, travel and commercial interests, as a tool for research and the study of sciences, to satisfy curricular requirements, etc. Non-traditional responses concerned the respective learner's desire to understand what is said by characters portraying Germans in American TV programs and movies. An incontestable inherent basis of interest in studying the language was brought to light in connection with the 1980 census, when it was determined that over 51 million Americans (28.4%) are at least partly of German descent.

SPANISH is apparently studied by many Americans because there are more opportunities to use the language without leaving the country. Also, many

students feel that it is "easier" to learn than most other languages. Opportunities for exposure to the language in "live" situations are at hand because of the presence of numerous native speakers of Spanish in many cities and communities around the country. In the U. S., the most readily available foreign language broadcasts on radio and television tend to be in Spanish, which puts advantageous "reinforcement" opportunities within easy reach of the learners.

Other criteria that can be useful in deciding which language to study may be based on economic considerations, like the per capita economic potential of individual countries, or the volume of exports, for example. In 1985/86, the top seven exporters of the free world were West Germany, the U. S., Japan, France, Great Britain, Italy, and Canada. A ranking of countries in terms of GNP aggregate results in the following line-up: 1) U.S.A., 2) Soviet Union, 3) Japan, 4) West Germany, 5) France, 6) China, 7) U.K., 8) Canada, 9) Italy, 10) Brazil, 11) Spain, etc.

Comparative international figures concerning areas and populations may also be relevant in arriving at a satisfactory choice. An arrangement of countries according to share of total land area is as follows: 1) Soviet Union, 2) Canada, 3) China, 4) U.S.A., 5) Brazil, 6) Australia, 7) India, 8) Argentina, 9) Sudan, 10) Algeria, etc. Other possible comparative arrangements might include data concerning populations. Consider the following, for example:

Country	Relative Size	Population in Millions
a) Austria	Smaller than Maine	7.5
b) Belgium	Slightly larger than Maryland	9.7
c) France	Larger than IL, WI, MI, and OH combined	51.2
d) German Dem. Republ.	Smaller than Tennessee	16.7
e) Germany, Fed. "	Smaller than Oregon	61.3
f) Great Britain	Larger than IL and IN combined	53.8
g) Mexico	Three times the size of Texas	72.6
h) Spain	Larger than AR, OK, and MO combined	35.3
i) Switzerland	Half the size of South Carolina	6.5
j) U.S.A. (50 states)	Nearly as large as all of Europe	235.9

SUGGESTED EXERCISE:

On the basis of the data given above, arrange the countries listed - in descending order, according to x) relative physical size and y) total population. In column z), write the principal language that is spoken in each respective country:

x) Relative Size	y) Total Population	z) Principal Language
1. _____	1. _____	a) _____
2. _____	2. _____	b) _____
3. _____	3. _____	c) _____
4. _____	4. _____	d) _____
5. _____	5. _____	e) _____
6. _____	6. _____	f) _____
7. _____	7. _____	g) _____
8. _____	8. _____	h) _____
9. _____	9. _____	i) _____
10. _____	10. _____	j) _____

MAPS AND NATIONALITIES

The "foreign" appearance of maps can be considerably reduced by becoming familiar with some of the differences in spelling and pronunciation. As you read the following names of continents and countries, try to say them as native speakers of the respective language would. Consult the pronouncing gazeteer section of a collegiate dictionary or bilingual ones. Enter the corresponding English (or other) equivalents in the blank spaces provided. Note that the French names are normally preceded by an article. In German and Spanish, this is true only in some cases: "die Schweiz" (Switzerland), "die Türkei" (Turkey), "el Perú" (Peru), "la Argentina" (Argentina), etc.

FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ENGLISH	OTHER
l'Amérique du Nord	Nordamerika	América del Norte	_____	_____

FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ENGLISH	OTHER
l'Allemagne	Deutschland	Alemania		
l'Angleterre	England	Inglaterra		
la Belgique	Belgien	Bélgica		
le Canada	Kanada	Canadá		
l'Ecosse	Schottland	Escocia		
l'Espagne	Spanien	España		
les Etas-Unis	Vereinigte Staaten	Estados Unidos		
la France	Frankreich	Francia		
la Grande Bretagne	Grossbritannien	Gran Bretaña		
l'Irlande	Irland	Irlanda		
l'Italie	Italien	Italia		
le Japon	Japan	Japón		
le Maroc	Marokko	Marruecos		
les Pay-Bas	die Niederlande	los Países Bajos		
la Nouvelle-Zéland	Neuseeland	Nueva Zelandia		
la Suisse	die Schweiz	Suiza		
l'Union Soviétique	Sowjetunion	Unión Soviética		

FRENCH is the language primarily or widely spoken in the following countries or territories. Enter their corresponding English names in the blanks as you pinpoint them on a world map.

1) Algerie_____, Africa

2) Belgique_____, Europe

3) Burundi_____, Africa

4) Cambodge_____, Asia

5) Cameroun_____, Africa

6) Corse_____, Europe

7) Côte d'Ivoire_____, Africa

8) Dahomey_____, Africa

9) France_____, Europe

10) Gabon_____, Africa

11) Guadaloupe_____, West Indies

12) Guinée_____, West Africa

13) Guyana Française_____, South America

14) Haiti_____, Antilles

15) Haute Volta_____, Africa

16) Laos_____, Asia

17) Louisiane_____, U.S.A.

18) Luxembourg_____, Europe

19) Mali_____, Africa

20) Maroc_____, Africa

21) Martinque_____, Afrika

22) Martinique_____, West Indies

23) Niger_____, Africa

24) Nouvelle Caledonie_____, East of Australia

25) Polynesie Française_____, Oceania

26) Quebec_____, Canada

27) Republique Centrafricaine_____, Africa

28) Republique Populaire du Congo_____, Africa

29) Republique Malgache_____, Indian Ocean

30) Republique Rwandaise_____, Africa

31) Reunion_____, Indian Ocean

32) Senegal_____, West Africa

33) Suisse_____, Europe

34) Tchad_____, Central Africa

35) Territoire des Afars et des Issas_____, Golf of Aden

36) Togo_____, Africa

37) Tunisie_____, Africa

38) Vietnam_____, Asia

39) Zaire_____, Africa

GERMAN is the principal language of about 118 million people, according to the World Almanac and Book of Facts 1986 (New York, 1985), p. 198. In terms of number of speakers, it ranks eleventh in the world, after Chinese, English, Hindi, Spanish, Russian, Arabic, Bengali, Portuguese, Malay-Indonesian, and Japanese. French ranks twelfth with about 112 million speakers.

Most speakers of German are living in the following Central European countries and/or territories (give their English names):

Bundesrepublik Deutschland (BRD)_____

Deutsche Demokratische Republik (DDR)_____

Liechtenstein_____

Luxemburg_____

Osterreich_____

Schweiz_____

SPANISH is the official language of many countries. It is also still widely spoken in areas that used to be controlled by Spain. The Philippine Islands, Guam, Trinidad, and others serve as examples. Speakers of Spanish also constitute the largest non-English-speaking minority group in the United States of America. In the following list of Spanish-speaking countries and islands, take note of the spelling as you try to pronounce their names with proper Spanish inflection. Helpful phonetic guidelines can be found in reference works like the New Revised Velásquez Spanish and English Dictionary, for example.

1) Argentina	2) Islas Baleares	3) Belice
4) Bolivia	5) Islas Canarias	6) Chile
7) Colombia	8) Costa Rica	9) Cuba
10) Republica Dominicana	11) Ecuador	12) España
13) Honduras	14) Islas Galápagos (Ecuador)	15) Guatemala
16) Islas Malvinas	17) Mexico	18) Nicaragua
19) Panamá	20) Paraguay	21) Perú
22) Puerto Rico	23) El Salvador	24) Uruguay
25) Venezuela		

INHERENT CRITERIA

Other considerations for selecting a language seem to be based on features of the language itself and upon the individual learner's ability to relate to them readily. Criteria may involve sound, rhythm, "logic," structure, and other factors. Many people are attracted to French, for example, because of the "musical" quality of the language; others are intrigued by the similarity of many English and German words, and so on. Characteristic sounds and the rhythm of a language are often reflected uniquely in so-called "tongue-twisters." Some examples (along with translations) may serve to conclude this unit:

FRENCH

Six sous ces saucissons-ci? (Six cents for these sausages?)

Diderot dînait du dos d'un dodo dindon. (Diderot dined on the back of a plump turkey).

Le ver vert va vers le verre vert. (The green drudge goes to the green grass).

GERMAN

Fischers Fritze fischt frische Fische.

Frische Fische fischt Fischers Fritz.

(Fisher's Fritz is fishing (for) fresh fish.

(for) fresh fish fishes Fisher's Fritz).

Hinter Hannes Hansens Hasenhaus

hängen hundert Hemde 'haus.

(Behind the rabbit stall of Hannes' Hans,

a hundred shirts are hanging outside).

Wir Wiener Weiber wollten weisse Wäsche waschen,

wenn wir wüssten wo warmes Wasser wäre.

(We women of Vienna would like to launder white clothes

if we knew where there is some hot water).

SPANISH

Mi mamá me mima mucho. (My mother spoils me a lot).

Trés tristes tigres trillaron en un trigal.

(Three sad tigers threshed wheat in a wheat field).

Yo no compro coco. Porque como poco coco, poco coco compro.

(I do not buy coconut. Since I eat little coconut, I buy little coconut).

V. Probing Language Substance

WHICH COULD I GET INTO?

In the report Strength Through Wisdom: A Critique of U. S. Capability (Washington, D. C., 1979), the members of a special presidential commission on foreign language and area studies stated that about half of all Americans would like to have a proficiency in at least one foreign language. About 54% agree that the study of foreign languages also improves the learners' command of English. Instinctively, most beginning foreign language students use their own language as a source of reference and comparison in the initial learning process. However, many learners soon find out that there is not only no word-for-word correspondence between different languages, but that the structure of the target language seems to be "backward" or "mixed-up." Reliance on one's own language in learning a new one soon turns out to be a hindrance in some ways. It takes a little time for some learners to realize that, to a native speaker of the target language, the structures of other languages must appear all twisted or perverted. Both viewpoints are correct, of course, because the structures, orthographies, sound and symbol correspondences, etc., of all naturally evolved languages leave much to be desired. For example, one might expect that roosters in England, France, Germany, or other countries, make the same sounds the world over. Yet, in English, their crowing sound is rendered as "cock-a-doodle-doo," in French as cocorico, and in German as kikeriki. Similarly, in an English-speaking country a dog's bark is given as "whoof-whoof"--even if it happens to be a German shepherd, a dachshund, or a schnauzer, whose barks are all described as wau-wau, or bau-wau in their country of origin. The differences in these

and other renditions of natural sounds reflect more than random variations in what the alphabetic symbols stand for. These differences are a function of the way people perceive things, which in turn, is a reflection of the way they have been conditioned by social and natural environmental factors.

Prospective foreign language learners can expect to enhance their chances of success by conducting some preliminary studies to find out which language is characterized by structures, concepts, patterns, etc., that are most germane to their own thought processes. One way, in which this can be accomplished, is through a study of idioms or figures of speech which tend to embody the inherent flavor and logic of a language and, according to the scholar Wilhelm von Humboldt (1767-1835), also reflect the mentality of its speakers.

An idiom is an expression in the usage of a language, that is peculiar to itself either in grammatical construction or in having a meaning which cannot be derived as a whole from the conjoined meanings of its elements. Examples: To strike it lucky, to pull someone's leg, to be stood up, to hold a candle to someone, to kick the bucket, etc. Some idiomatic expressions do not have figurative equivalents in other languages in which case their meaning is rendered literally in translation. In a Spanish-speaking country, for example, when a contestant "carries the day," he is simply said "to attain victory": alcanzar victoria, or "to remain victorious": quedar victorioso. The French equivalent, remporter la palme, which means "bearing the palm," alludes to a classic symbol of victory. The corresponding German expression, das Rennen machen, meaning "to win the race," is euphemistic because the event could be a

bowling contest, or something else, rather than a race. These examples show that in different languages the lines of thought, sources of reference, methods of comparison, etc., run in different directions and have different dimensions. The examples also illustrate how students of foreign languages simultaneously expand their horizons by learning to perceive things in additional ways. In fact, if it were not for the constant discovery of new concepts, formulations, structures, meanings, etc., foreign language study might be rather dry and dull for some people. However, a positive attitude greatly counteracts the possibility of boredom.

COMPARING IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS

In good bilingual dictionaries idiomatic expressions can be found under key words. The following selection may serve to illustrate the drastic variations between corresponding French (F), German (G), and Spanish (S) concepts. Where the foreign language equivalents are not sufficiently identical to their English counterparts, literal translations, rather than figurative alternates, are provided when possible to give the readers a better taste of each respective language, so that their choices may be facilitated and their chances of success increased. Interested qualified learners may also wish to write examples of other (O) languages in the spaces provided.

A

1) to make much <u>ado</u> about something
   F: faire grand bruit pour rien
      (to make a lot of noise about nothing)
   G: viel Aufhebens von etwas machen
      (to fuss with or about something)
   S: I. nada entre dos platos
         (nothing between two plates)
      II. más es el ruido que las nueces
         (the noise amounts to more than the nuts).

O: _____

B

2) brand new
F: tout flambant neuf
(all blazing new)
G: nagelneu
(new as a nail)
S: flamante, enteramente nuevo
(resplendent, entirely new)

O: _____

C

3) to tell cock-and-bull stories
F: raconter des histoires de pure invention
(to tell totally fabricated stories)
G: Märchen erzählen
(to tell fairy tales)
S: contar cuentos pasados
(to tell stories of the past)

O: _____

D

4) to go to the dogs
F: finir dans le ruisseau
(to wind up in the gutter)
G: unter die Räder kommen
(to get beneath the wheels)
S: estar arruinado
(to be ruined)

O: _____

E

5) What's eating you?
F: que t'enquiète?
(what disquiets you?)
G: Was ist dir über die Leber gelaufen?
(what ran across your liver?)
S: ¿Qué mosca te ha picado?
(what fly has stung you?)

O: _____

F

6) to be in the family-way
F: être dans une situation intéressante
(to be in an interesting state or condition)
G: in anderen Umständen sein
(to be in different circumstances)
S: estar en cinta, embarazada
(to be subject to restraint; entangled)

O:_____

G

7) to have the gift of gab
F: avoir la langue bien pendue
(to have a well-hinged tongue)
G: nicht auf den Mund gefallen sein
(not to have fallen on one's mouth)
S: tener la lengua muy suelta
(to have a rather glib tongue)

O:_____

H

8) to take to one's heels
F: tourner les talons
(to rotate one's heels)
G: Fersengeld geben
(to pay heel- or leg-bail)
S: poner pies en polvorosa
(to get one's feet dusty)

O:_____

I

9) give him an inch and he'll take a mile
F: Donnez-lui-en grand comme le doigt et il en prendra long comme le bras
(give him the width of a finger and he'll take the breadth of a hand)
G: Wenn man einem den kleinen Finger reicht, nimmt er die ganze Hand
(if one extends the little finger to someone, he's apt to take the whole hand)
S: Le da la mano y se toma el brazo
(one extends the hand and the arm is taken)

O:_____

J

10) he is a Jack-of-all-trades
F: il est un touche-à-tout
(he is a meddler)
G: er ist ein Hansdampf in allen Gassen
(he is a notorious busy-body
S: es aprendiz de todo y oficial de nada
(he is an apprentice of everything and a journeyman at nothing)

O: _____

K

11) to kill two birds with one stone
F: faire d'un pierre deux coups
(to make two hits with one stone)
G: zwei Fliegen mit einem Streich treffen
(to hit two flies with one stroke)
S: matar dos pajaros de un tiro

O: _____

L

12) to laugh up one's sleeve
F: rire sous cape
(to laugh under cover of one's cape)
G: sich ins Fäustchen lachen
(to laugh into one's fist)
S: reirse interiormente
(to laugh inwardly)

O: _____

M

13) mind your (own) business!
F: occupe-toi de tes oignons!
(busy yourself with your own onions)
G: kehre vor deiner eigenen Tür!
(sweep in front of your own door)
S: metate en lo que te importa
(address yourself to things that are of concern to you)

O: _____

N

14) to feather one's nest
F: faire son beurre
(to make one's own butter)
G: sein Schäfchen ins Trockene bringen
(to bring one's little sheep to shelter)
S: hacer su agosto
(to create one's own harvest)

O:_____

O

15) to sow one's wild oats
F: faire des fredaines
(to pull pranks, make escapades)
G: sich die Hörner abstossen
(to wear off or lose one's horns)
S: hacer de las suyas
(to do one's own thing)

O:_____

P

16) to paint the town red
F: faire la bringue
(to do one's bit)
G: (mächtig) auf die Pauken hauen
(to beat the drums loudly)
S: cometer diabluras
(to commit mischief)

O:_____

Q

17) to pick a quarrel
F: chercher une querelle d'Allemand
(to seek an unprovoked dispute)
G: einen Streit vom Zaun brechen
(to pick a quarrel off the fence, i.e., spontaneously)
S: buscar pendencia sin provocación
(to seek a quarrel without provocation)

O:_____

R

18) to be without rhyme or reason
F: n'avoir ni queue ni tête
(having neither tail nor head)
G: weder Hand noch Fuss haben
(having neither hand nor foot)
S: sin ton ni son
(having neither tone nor sound)

O:_____

S

19) to go (or come) on shanks' mare
F: prendre le train onze
(to catch train eleven-when there are only ten)
G: auf Schusters Rappen reiten
(to ride the shoemaker's black)
S: andar a pie
(to go on foot)

O:_____

T

20) don't trouble my head with it
F: ne m'ennuyez pas avec cela
(don't bother me with that)
G: verursachen Sie mir damit keine Kopfzerbrechen
(don't make me rack my brains about that)
S: no me quiebre usted la cabeza con eso
(don't bust my head with that)

O:_____

U

21) to be under a cloud
F: I. avoir eu un revers de fortune
(to have suffered a reversal of luck)
II. être l'objet de soupçons
(to be the object of suspicion)
G: I. unter einem Unglücksstern stehen
(to be under a unlucky star)
II. sich unter einem bösen Schatten befinden
(to be under an evil shadow)
S: I. hallarse en apuros
(to find oneself in great want, or anguish
II. sufrir en su reputación
(to experience a diminution of esteem)

O:_____

V

22) to vanish into thin air
F: disparaître de la circulation
(to disappear from traffic or circulation)
G: von der Bildfläche verschwinden
(to disappear from the overall scene)
S: ocultarse o quitarse de la vista con presteza
(to vanish or withdraw from view speedily)

O:_____

W

23) to talk to the wall/to whistle down the wind
F: prêcher dans le désert
(to be preaching in the desert)
G: in den Wind reden
(to talk into the wind)
S: I. hablar por demás
(to talk uselessly)
II. gastar saliva en balde
(to expend saliva in vain)

O:_____

X (by German version)

24) to pull the wool over someone's eyes
F: faire prendre à quelqun de vessies pour les lanternes
(to make someone mistake bladders for lanterns)
G: jemandem ein x für ein u vormachen
(to tell someone that the x is really a u)
S: engañarlo como un chino
(to fool someone like a halfbreed)

O:_____

Y

25) to throw (or cast) off the yoke
F: secouer le joug /s'affranchir du joug
(to shake of or free oneself of the yoke)
G: das Joch abstreifen, oder abwerfen
(to slip out of, or cast off, the yoke)
S: sacudir el yugo
(to shake off the yoke)

O:_____

Z (by German version)

26) to foot the bill, to face the music
F: payer les pots cassés
(to pay for the broken jugs)
G: die Zeche bezahlen
(to stand treat)
S: pagar la cuenta
(to pay the bill)

O:_____

SUGGESTED EXERCISE:
Extend the selection of idiomatic expressions by jotting down your favorite formulations along with at least one foreign language equivalent, as found under key words in standard bilingual dictionaries.

EXAMINING PROVERBIAL SAYINGS

Many cultural and psychological aspects that can lead to a better understanding of other peoples, are reflected in their respective languages, as we had a chance to observe through a comparative analysis of idioms. An even more intimate glimpse into a people's language is attainable through a study of proverbs because they embody a rich assortment of folk wisdom which may or may not be shared by speakers of other languages. The characteristically folksy nature of some proverbs becomes apparent when one tries to translate the colloquial expressions into more formal equavelents. For example the phrase "You gotta wanna," the slogan of the high school basketball team of Pekin, Illinois, has no standard language equivalent in English. "One must want to," or "You have to want to" are not quite the same. In other languages, incidentally, this slogan does have standard proverbial equivalents. In French, for example, it is: On doit vouloir, and in German: Man muss wollen.

Many proverbs have literal equivalents in other languages. Example 1:

E: Opportunity makes the thief.

F: L'occasion fait le larron.

G: Gelegenheit macht Diebe.

S: La ocasion hace al ladrón.

O:_____

Proberbs of this category are not included in the selection below because they merely confirm the well-known fact that some ideas can be expressed the same way in other languages. The purpose of the selection of proverbs that follows, is to illustrate differences in concepts and characteristic ways of expression. As in the array of idioms, every effort was made to give literal translations rather than figurative equivalents. In order to retain the colloquial

flavor of many proverbs, the translations are generally rendered in informal English. In cases where the foreign language proverb is rather similar to the corresponding English version, no translation is given.

A number of proverbs express identical maxims in different ways, so that one is tempted to ask whether in some societies certain modes of behavior were scorned more manifestly than others. Example 2:

E: Once a thief, always a thief.
F: Qui a bu boira.
He who drank, will drink.
G: Dem Trinker kommt der Durst.
A drinker gets thirsty.
S: El que jugó, jugara.
He who gambled, will gamble (again).

O:_____

While people in these categories were apparently discouraged from following their natural inclinations through stigmatization, potential rovers, vagabonds, and adventurers were variously persuaded to stay put. Example 3:

E: He who roams, may lose his home.
F: Qui va a la chasse perd sa place.
He who goes hunting (or prospecting) loses his place.
G: Aufgestanden, Platz vergangen.
Rise and your place will vanish.
S: El que va a Sevilla pierde su silla.
He who goes to Eau Claire loses his lair.

O:_____

The differences in this particular example are attributable to the rhyme. But what is it that underlies the reasons for the differences in the following correlations? Example 4:

E: Let sleeping dogs lie.
F: Il ne faut pas réveiller le chat qui dort.
One shouldn't awaken a sleeping tom-cat.
G: Schlafende Hunde soll man nicht wecken.
S: Al león que duerme, que no lo despierten.
A sleeping lion should not be awakened.

O:_____

The reasons for the differences are apparently of a geographic and cultural nature. Lions were never native to the English, French, and German-speaking areas of Europe; but they did exist in Spanish territories. In France, dogs used to be regarded primarily as hunting animals, while tom-cats often served as "watch-dogs."

The wisdom expressed in the following proverbs seems to have been derived from hunting experiences, but its broader practical implications are brought to light in the Spanish version. Example 5:

E: Have two strings to your bow.
F: Il est bon d'avoir plus d'une corde a son arc.
G: Man muss mehr als einen Pfeil in seinem Köcher haben.
One must have more than one arrow in one's quiver.
S: Bueno es su maña alcanzar, y mejor si hubiese un par.
It is good to pursue one's skill, but it is even better to have two.

O:_____

An interesting difference brought out in this set of equivalents can be seen in the concern expressed about the means of delivery (the bow) in English and French, while in German, the availability of the projectile (the arrow) seems to be crucial. What this implies, jives with the basic reality that the Germans, traditionally, have had less cause to worry about the functioning of their equipment than about the availability of necessary supplies for its continued operation.

Many proverbs do not have equivalents in other languages at all. However, this does not necessarily mean that the concepts expressed in such proverbs are entirely unknown to speakers of languages in which no comparable equivalents exist. For example, the fact that a person cannot be in two places at the same time, is perfectly communicable and understood in English, even though the idea is not expressed proverbially, as we find it in French, German, and Spanish. Example 6:

F: I. On ne peut être à la fois au four et au moulin.
One cannot be in the baker's oven and at the mill at the same time.
II. On ne peut pas être à la foire et au moulin.
One cannot be at the fair and at the mill at the same time.
G: Man kann nicht auf zwei Hochzeiten gleichzeitig tanzen.
One cannot be dancing at two weddings simultaneously.
S: No se puede repicar y andar en la procesión.
One cannot ring a merry peal and walk in a procession at the same time.

O:_____

Some dimensions of thoughts, feelings, and actions cannot always be fully rendered in translation even when reasonably close equivalents do exist in each of the languages concerned. If this were not the case, there would be less reason for people to learn foreign languages. Instead, one might expect to have computers and human translators satisfy the demand. However, the truth is that, due to inherent idiosynchrasies in naturally evolved languages, computers can only achieve about seventy percent accuracy in translation work, not to mention problems relating to the faithful rendition of nuances of meaning, or peculiarities of style.

Even human translators are often at a loss for words when truly corresponding equivalents are lacking in the target language. The following group of related provers may illustrate this point. Example 7:

E: (no comparable proverb available)
F: Il fau toujours en prendre et en laisser.
One should always take some and leave some.
G: I. Man muß immer etwas abziehen.
One always needs to make allowances.
II. Der Brei wird nicht so heiß gegessen wie er gekocht ist.
The pap is never eaten as hot as it is cooked.
S: No todo es vero lo que suena el pandero.
Not everything one's baker says can be taken verbatim.

O:_____

Example 8:
E: (no comparable proverb available)
F: Il ne faut pas s'embarquer sans biscuit.
One should never embark on a journey without a biscuit.
G: Wer wandert, schmiere seine Stiefel!
A person who roams, should oil his/her boots.
S: Cuando fueres al razo, no vayas sin calagozo.
Don't go stubbing without a bill or hedging hook.

O:_____

Example 9:

E: (no comparable proverb available)
F: La poule ne doit pas chanter avant le coq.
The hen must not crow before the rooster does.
G: (no comparable proverb available)
S: Triste está la casa, donde la gallina canta y el gallo calla.
It is a sad house where the hen crows and the rooster keeps silent.

O:_____

Example 10:

E: Truth is stranger than fiction.
F: La realité depasse la fiction.
Reality extends beyond fiction.
G: Das Leben schreibt die besten Romane.
Life writes the best novels.
S: (no comparable proverb available)

O:_____

As the embodiment of wisdom, proverbs have been traditionally passed on by word of mouth, and they have been used as media for the inculcation of social virtues and for giving advice. Sometimes, the scope of the message transcends reality and extends into mythical realms, as one proverb in the next group shows. Example 11:

E: There is many a slip between cup and lip.
F: Il y a loin de la coupe aux lèvres.
It is a long way from the cup to the lips.
G: I. Zwischen Becher und Gaum' ist ein grosser Raum.
There is a great distance between cup and palate.
II. Zwischen Lipp' und Kelchesrand schwebt der finstern Mächte Hand.
The invisible hands of the spirits of the dark, are gliding between a person's lips and the edge of his cup.
S: De la mano a la boca se pierde la sopa.
From the hand to the mouth the soup is lost.

O:_____

Although many proverbs are of a secular nature, some have religious overtones, as we can see in the Spanish version of the following group.

Example 12:

E: Think twice before you speak.
F: Il faut tourner sept fois sa langue dans sa bouche avant de parler.
One should rotate one's tongue seven times in one's mouth before speaking.
G: Überlege dir hundertmal, ehe du sprichst.
Think a hundred times before you speak.
S: Antes de hablar, un padrenuestro rezar.
Before you speak, say the Lord's prayer.

O:_____

Proverbs for Further Study and Analysis

1) Don't aspire above your station.
   F: Il ne faut pas se moucher plus haut que son nez.
   (One should not wipe one's nose above its locus)
   G: Man soll nicht zu hoch hinaus wollen.
   S: De puntillas, no se vuelve uno más alto.
   (One does not become taller on tiptoes)

   O: _____

2) Well begun is half done.
   F: Chose bien commencée est à moitié faite.
   G: I. Gut begonnen ist halb gewonnen.
   II. Frisch gewagt ist halb gewonnen.
   (An undertaking boldly approached, is half accomplished)
   S: Obra empezada, es medio acababa.
   (A task that is begun, is already half done)

   O: _____

3) It is a case of the biter bit.
   F: I. Tel est pris qui croyait prendre.
   (Thus is caught he who was going to capture)
   II. C'est le voleur volé.
   (It is a case of the robber robbed)
   G: Wer andern eine Grube gräbt, fällt selbst hinein.
   (People who set traps for others get caught themselves)
   S: Muchos van por lana y vuelven trasquilados.
   (Many go out to get some wool, only to get clipped themselves)

   O: _____

4) Once bitten, twice shy
   F: On ne se laisse pas prendre deux fois.
   (One doesn't allow oneself to be caught twice)
   G: Der Esel geht nur einmal aufs Eis.
   (A donkey goes on the ice only once)
   S: Una vez engañan el cuerdo.
   (A prudent person is fooled only once)

   O: _____

5) Do not put the cart before the horse.
F: Il ne faut pas mettre la charrue devant les boeufs.
(One should not put the plow before the oxen)
G: Man soll das Pferd nicht am Schwanz aufzäumen.
(One should not hitch up the horses by their tails)
S: I. No hay que poner la carreta antes que los bueyes.
(One should not put the cart before the oxen)
II. No hay que tomar el rábano por las hojas.
(One should not select radishes by their leaves)

O: _____

6) An empty belly hears nobody.
F: Ventre affamé n'a point d'oreilles.
(A starving stomach has no ears)
G: Einem hungrigen Magen ist schlecht predigen.
(It is difficult to preach to an empty stomach)
S: El vientre ayuno no oye a ninguno.
(An abstinent stomach listens to no one)

O: _____

7) There is no arguing with a large fist.
F: La raison du plus fott est toujours la meilleure.
(The reasoning of the mightiest is always the best)
G: Der Stärkere hat immer Recht.
(The stronger one is always right)
S: No hay tal razón como la del bastón.
(There's no rationality like that of the truncheon)

O: _____

8) Flies are more easily caught with honey than with vinegar.
F: I. On ne prend pas le mouches avec du vinaigre.
(One doesn't catch flies with vinegar)
II. Plus fait douceur que violence.
(Pleasantness accomplishes more than violence)
G: I. Mit Speck fängt man Mäuse.
(Mice are caught with bacon as bait)
II. Mit Güte erreicht man mehr als mit Gewalt.
(With kindness, one accomplishes more than by force)
S: I. Más moscas se cogen con miel que con hiel.
(One catches more flies with honey than with bile)
II. Más vale mañas que fuerzas.
(Dexterity is worth more than strength)

O: _____

9) All lay load on the willing horse.
F: Bon et bête commencent par la même lettre.
(Friendly and foolish both begin with the same letter)
G: Zu gut ist dumm.
(Being too kind, is being foolish)
S: Caerse de bueno es caerse de bobo.
(To be manifestly kindhearted means to be foolish)

O:_____

10) I. 'Tis a good horse that never stumbles.
II. A horse stumbles that has four legs.
F: Il n'est si bon cheval qui ne bronche.
(No horse is so good that it never stumbles)
G: I. Jeder Mensch macht mal einen Fehler.
(Everybody makes a mistake once in a while)
II. Ein gescheites Huhn legt auch mal in die Nesseln.
(A smart chicken also lays an egg in the nettles now and then)
S: I. Al mejor cazador se le escapa la liebre.
(A hare is likely to escape from the best hunter)
II. El mejor escribano echa su borrón.
(The best scribe makes some inkblots)

O:_____

11) Never too late to mend.
F: Il n'est jamais trop tard pour bien faire.
G: Die Reue kommt nie zu spät.
(Repentence never comes too late)
S: Nunca es tarde si la dicha es buena.
(It's never (too) late, if one's luck is good)

O:_____

12) There is one law for the rich and another for the poor.
F: On pend les petits voleurs et on laisse courir les grands.
(They hang petty thieves and let grand larcenists free)
G: Kleine Diebe hängt man, die grossen lässt man laufen.
(Petty thieves are hung, grand larcenists are set free)
S: Para los desgraciados se hizo la horca.
(Gallows were made for the hapless)

O:_____

13) A man can do no more than he can.
F: I. A l'impossible nul n'est tenu.
(Nothing is attached to the impossible)
II. La plus belle fille du monde ne peut donner que ce qu'elle a.
(The prettiest girl in the world can only give what she has)
G: Niemand kann über seinen Schatten springen.
(Nobody can jump over his own shadow)
S: Dios no joide imposibles.
(God does not ask for the impossible)

O:_____

14) Money is everything.
F: I. Le veau d'or est toujours debout.
(The golden calf always stands)
II. Il n'y a que l'argent qui compte.
(Only money counts)
G: Geld regiert die Welt.
(Money rules the world)
S: Poderoso caballero es don dinero.
(Mr. Money is a powerful gentleman)

O:_____

15) Dupes are always fleeced.
F: Qui se fait brebis le loup le mange.
(A person who behaves like a lamb, will be eaten by a wolf)
G: Wer sich zum Lamm macht, den fressen die Wölfe.
(A person who behaves like a lamb, will be eaten by wolves)
S: Quien se hace miel, se le comen las moscas.
(A person who is sweet as honey, will be eaten by flies)

O:_____

16) Mince pies don't grow on trees.
F: Les alouettes ne vous tombent pas toutes rôties dans le bec.
(There aren't going to be any roasted larks falling into one's mouth)
G: Die gebratenen Tauben fliegen einem nicht ins Maul.
(Roast pigeons do not fly into one's mouth)
S: Al raposo durmiente no le amanece la gallina en el vientre.
(A person in sleeping repose, is not going to have a chicken come into his stomach)

O:_____

17) A small rain lays great winds.
F: Petite pluie abat grand vent.
G: Ein Tropfen Öl glättet die grössten Wellen.
(A drop of oil smooths the largest waves)
S: Respuesta mansa ira quebranta.
(A gentle reply will temper the issue)

O:_____

18) You can't make a silk purse out of a sow's ear.
F: On ne saurait faire d'une buse un épervier.
(One can't make a sparrow-hawk out of a buzzard)
G: Wenn der Esel auch eine Löwenhaut trägt, die Ohren gucken vor.
(Even if a donkey wears a lion's skin, his ears protrude)
S: La mona vestida de seda, mona se queda.
(An ape dressed in silk, is still an ape)

O:_____

19) Speak in haste, repent at leisure.
F: I. Trop gratter cuit, trop parler nuit.
(Too much scratching smarts, too much talking hurts)
II. Il ne faut pas avoir la langue trop longue.
(A person should not be excessively loquacious)
G: Besser ein Wort zu wenig als zu viel.
(It's better to say too little than too much)
S: I. Quien mucho habla, mucho yerra.
(A person who talks a lot, errs a lot)
II. Por la boca muere el pez.
(A fish meets death by way of its mouth)

O:_____

20) I. He that will steal a pin, will steal a pound.
II. A young filcher becomes an old robber.
F: Qui vole un oeuf vole un boeuf.
(A person who steals an egg, will steal an ox)
G: Mit Kleinem fängt man an, mit Grossem hört man auf.
(One begins with petty items and ends up with big ones)
S: Ladroncillo de agujeta, despues sube a barjuleta
(A petty thief of leather straps, goes on to steal (entire) sacks)

O:_____

21) I. Teach your grandmother to suck eggs.
II. There is no catching old birds with chaff.
F: Ce n'est pas au vieux singe...(qu'on apprend à faire la grimace).
(It isn't an old monkey...whom one instructs in making faces)
G: Alten Hasen macht man nichts vor.
(One doesn't try to teach old rabbits new tricks)
S: A perro viejo no hay tus tus.
(An old dog knows better than to respond to an empty-handed come on)

O:_____

22) Time is the nurse and breeder of all things.
F: Il faut du temps pour tout.
(There's a time for everything)
G: I. Gut Ding braucht Weile.
(Good things take time)
II. Zeit bringt Rosen.
(Roses grow in due time)
S: I. Al tiempo hay que darle lo suyo.
(Time has to be given its due)
II. Con el tiempo maduran las uvas.
(Grapes ripen with time)

O:_____

23) The tongue is a sharper weapon than the sword.
F: Un coup de langue es pire qu'un coup de lance.
(A cutting remark is worse than a jab with a lance)
G: Scharfe Schwerter schneiden sehr, scharfe Zungen noch viel mehr.
(Sharp swords cut deep, but sharp tongues cut deeper)
S: La palabra no es flecha, pero hiere.
(A word is not an arrow, or a dart, but it can injure)

O:_____

24) Fine words butter no parsnips.
F: Les belles paroles ne font pas bouillir la marmite.
(Pretty words do not make a pot boil)
G: Von schönen Worten wird man nicht satt.
(Pretty words do not satiate a person)
S: Con palabras solas nadie pone olla.
(Nobody produces a dish with nothing but words)

O:_____

25) It is a small world!
F: I. Le monde est petit.
II. Il n'y a que les montagnes qui ne se rencontrent pas.
(Only mountains never meet)
G: Die Welt ist ein Dorf!
(The world is a village)
S: I. El mundo es pequeño.
II. ¡El mundo es un pañuelo!
(The world is a handkerchief)

O:_____

SUGGESTED EXERCISE:
Make a list of some biblical proverbs and look up their French, German, or Spanish equivalents in respective editions of the Bible.

VI. Structural Comparisons

Learning another language involves a) the acquisition of a new vocabulary and b) a familiarization with structure, i. e., the study of grammar.

Although the Greek word grammar literally means "that which pertains to writing," it actually encompasses more than that as far as the student of foreign lanuages is concerned. It provides a rather organized and systematized approach to the various components of language, including categories of words as well as their inflections and functions which are often based on rather obscure or even totally vanished rationales.

The process of learning by imitation without regard to rationales for adopted usage works well for children or uninquisitive learners, but it has more limited practical applicability for adults or the intellectually curious. In the latter categories, a knowledge of grammar can really accelerate a person's efforts to become bilingual.

It is the purpose of this unit to acquaint potential language students with some fundamentals of grammar in a comparative way. The individual learner's efforts should lead to a better comprehension of English and an appreciation of some features of French (F), German (G), and Spanish (S). A re-acquaintance with grammatical terms will also greatly facilitate subsequent language study. As in previous sections, spaces are provided where interested qualified learners can enter examples from other (O) languages.

THE SENTENCE

a) A SENTENCE is a unit of speech consisting of a meaningful arrangement of words, or merely a word that expresses.

1. an assertion: (E) Yes. (F) Oui. (G) Ja. (S) Si. (O)_____

2. a question: (E) Why? (F) Pourquoi? (G) Warum? (S) ¿Por que? (O)_____

3. a command: (E) Go! (F) Allez! (G) Gehen Sie! (S) ¡Vaya! (O)_____

4. a wish: (E) Come! (F) Venez! (G) Kommen Sie! (S) ¡Venga! (O)_____

5. or an exclamation: (E) Strange! (F) Bizarre! (G) Sonderbar! (S) ¡Caramba! (O)_____

Typically, a sentence contains

6. a subject and a predicate: (E) He sings well. (F) Il chante bien. (G) Er singt gut. (S) El canta bien. (O)_____

7. or only a predicate: (E) Have fun! (G) Viel Vergnügen! (The French and Spanish equivalents are not applicable here because they include the subject.) (O)_____

b) The SUBJECT of a sentence consists of the word or word group denoting that of which something is affirmed or predicated. In the sentence "He sings well," the pronoun "he" serves as the subject, and "sings well" constitutes the predicate which simply expresses what the subject does, or what is said of the subject. Other elements that can serve as subjects are:

1. Nouns: (E) The man buys a house.
(F) L'homme achète une maison.
(G) Der Mann kauft ein Haus.
(S) El hombre compra una casa.

(O)_____

2. Gerunds: (E) Giving gifts is wonderful.
(Equivalents in other languages use infinitive constructions.)

3. Infinitive phrases: (E) To give gifts is wonderful.
(F) Donner des cadeaux est merveilleux.
(G) Geschenke zu geben ist wunderbar.
(S) Dar presentes es maravilloso.

(O)_____

4. Noun clauses: (E) What he says is very interesting.
(F) Ce qu'il dit est très interessant.
(G) Was er sagt ist sehr interessant.
(S) Eso que el dice es muy interesante.

(O)_____

c) A CLAUSE is a word group formed by subject and predicate; it constitutes a member of a compound or complex sentence instead of ranking as a completed sentence. Examples:

1. Compound sentence: (E) Paul is happy, but Louis is sad.
(F) Paul est heureux mais Louis est triste.
(G) Paul ist glücklich aber Ludwig ist traurig.
(S) Pablo es feliz pero Luis es triste.

(O)_____

2. Complex sentence: (E) If I can, I'll go there.
(F) Si je peux, j'y vais.
(G) Wenn ich kann, gehe ich hin.
(S) Si puedo, me voy allí.

(O)_____

When a clause carries the main predication (cf. underlined parts in example 2), it is called an "independent" or "principal" clause; when it does not express a complete thought (cf. first part of sentence in example 2), it is called a "dependent" clause. Dependent clauses may be classified according to their function as "noun," "adjective," or "adverbial" clauses.

Noun clauses usually serve as the subject, or as the direct object of the verb. Ordinarily, a noun clause is introduced by one of the following words: "that," "if," "who," "why," "when," "where," etc.

Examples:

3. Subject: What you say cannot matter to Willy.

4. Direct object: She told me that she was leaving.

In foreign languages, noun clauses often have a subjunctive verb, especially after verbs expressing emotion or doubt. Example (direct object):

5. (E) I fear that he may speak.
(F) J'ai peur qu'il ne parle.
(G) Ich fürchte, dass er sprechen könnte.
(S) Temo que él hable.

(O) _____

Adjective clauses function as adjectives, usually modifying a noun antecedant.

Example:

6. (E) He is looking for someone who can cook.
(F) Il cherche quelqu'un que sache faire la cuisine.
(G) Er sucht jemanden, der kochen kann.
(S) Busca a alguien que sepa cocinar.

(O) _____

In the adjective clause of French and Spanish sentences, the verb is in the subjunctive, since the antecedent, quelqu'un and alguien (=someone) is indefinite; i.e., it is uncertain a) whether such a person exists, and b) whether he or she will be found.

Adverbial clauses function as adverbs and may modify verbs, adjectives or adverbs. They usually modify verbs, answering such questions as "For what purpose?" "Under what conditions?" "Why?" "Where?" "How?" "When?" etc.

Examples:

7. Purpose: I made preparations in order that you may come.
(F) J'ai fait préparatifs pour que tu viennes.
(G) Ich habe Vorbereitungen gemacht, damit du kommen kannst.
(S) He hecho preparaciones para que tu vengas.

In clauses answering the question "for what purpose," sentences in French and Spanish have a subjunctive verb (cf. example 7).

8. Condition: If we had money, we would travel.
(F) Si nous avions de l'argent, nous voyagerions.
(G) Wenn wir Geld hätten, würden wir reisen.
(S) Si tuviéramos dinero, viajaríamos.

(O)_____

In the French sentence, the verb of the "if clause" is in the imperfect tense, and the verb in the "then clause" is in the conditional. In the Spanish sentence, the verb of the "if clause" is in the past subjunctive, and the verb in the "then clause" is in the conditional also. In English and German, all verbs are in the subjunctive.

9. Why? (E) He works a lot because he is scared.
(F) Il travaille beaucoup parce qu'il a peur.
(G) Er arbeitet viel, weil er Angst hat.
(S) Trabaja mucho porque tiene miedo.

(O)_____

10. Where? (E) I will go wherever you want me to.
(F) J'irai où vous voudrez.
(G) Ich werde hingehen, wohin Sie wollen.
(S) Iré en donde quiera.

(O)_____

11. How? (E) He runs as fast as possible.
(F) Il court le plus vite possible.
(G) Er läuft so schnell wie möglich.
(S) Corre lo más rapido posible.

(O)_____

12. When? (E) I hope to visit you when I return.
(F) J'espère visiter vous quand je reviens.
(G) Ich hoffe Sie zu besuchen, wenn ich zurückkehre.
(S) Espero visitarle cuando vuelvo.

(O)_____

In addition to contrary-to-fact condition clauses (cf. example 8), there are simple present or future condition clauses. Example:

13. (E) If we have money, we will travel.
(F) Si nous avons de l'argent, nous voyagerons.
(G) Wenn wir Geld haben, reisen wir.
(S) Si tenemos dinero, viajamos.

(O)_____

The verbs in the "if clauses" are all in the present tense, but in the "then clause" (main clause), we find the future tense in English and French; in German and Spanish, the present tense is used because it is capable of carrying futurity.

In French, Spanish, and other Romance languages there are additional clauses that take a subjunctive verb. For example, clauses introduced by the adverbial expressions a menos que (unless), antes (de) que (before), con tal que (provided that), para que (so that), and sin que (without) are always followed by a verb in the subjunctive mood which expresses irreality, possibility, wishes, emotions (hope, fear, anxiety), uncertainty, etc. In French, clauses introduced by the conjunctions pour que (in order that), avant que (unless, before), and bien que (although, even though), always have the verb in the subjunctive (more information on the subjunctive can be found in the chapter on verbs).

d) PHRASES are related groups of words within clauses. Unlike clauses, phrases do not have a subject and a predicate. We distinguish between "prepositional," "infinitive," "gerund," and "participial" phrases.

Prepositional phrases usually modify verbs (adverbial function), but they may also modify nouns (adjectival function).

Examples:

1. Adverbial: (E) He is going to church.
(F) Il va à l'église.
(G) Er geht in die Kirche.
(S) Va a la iglesia.

(O)_____

2. Adjectival: (E) We procure money for the church.
(F) Nous procurons de l'argent pour l'église.
(G) Wir sammeln Geld für die Kirche.
(S) Obtenemos dinero para la iglesia.

(O)_____

Infinitive phrases usually serve as nouns (cf. b3 above for example); gerund and participial phrases may take the place of full clauses--except in Spanish where the present participle, or gerundio, may not be used as a noun or an adjective; instead, the infinitive is used.

Example:

3. (While) walking slowly, the little girls sang some songs.
(F)En marchant lentement, les jeunes filles ont chanté des chansons.
(G)Langsam gehend, sangen die kleinen Mädchen einige Lieder.
(S)Andar lentamente, las chicas han cantado algunas canciones.

(O) _____

NOUNS

a) The word "noun" comes from Latin nomen which means "name." Thus, a noun is simply a name of anything. To denote a word or word group that serves as a noun, grammarians have adopted the term "substantive." The substantive may be a pronoun, an adjective, a noun clause, a verbal noun, or any part of speech used as a noun equivalent.

b) There are two categories of nouns: "common" and "proper." Examples:

1. Common nouns: (E) book, door (F) livre, porte
(G) Buch, Tür (S) libro, puerta

(O)_____

2. Proper nouns: (E) London, Spain, General Motors
(F) Londres, Espagne, General Motors
(G) London, Spanien, General Motors
(S) Londres, España, General Motors

(O)_____

As a general rule, proper nouns are capitalized in most languages. In German, this rule applies to all nouns. In the Romance languages, the months, the days of the week, and the names of languages are not capitalized as they are in English for example.

Other classifications of nouns have been made under the following headings: "abstract" (honor, truth), "concrete" (paper, steel), "collective" (congregation, family), and "compound" (motorcycle, airplane).

Nouns are subject to three flexions: "gender," "number," and "case." (see below).

c) There are three GENDERS of nouns in English:

1. Masculine: man, brother, uncle, rooster, bull, gander, etc.

2. Feminine: woman, sister, aunt, hen, cow, goose, etc.

3. Neuter: apple, book, carpet, dimple, entrance, fish, etc.

In English, the masculine or feminine gender applies where sex distinctions are obvious or deemed important, and the neuter applies to all other nouns. This makes determination of gender very easy. It also helps account for the fact that native speakers of English are rather surprised, upon trying to learn a foreign language, that objects lacking sex distinctions, which are neuter in English, may be feminine or masculine in French, German and/or Spanish. For example, "table" is feminine in French (la table) and Spanish (la mesa) but masculine in German (der Tisch). The explanation is, of course, that in these, and other languages, genders are not used according to sex distinctions but rather, for grammatical reasons. One of the results is, that students must learn to associate the grammatical gender with the nouns as new words are learned. Without a knowledge of genders, it will be impossible to speak or write any of these languages correctly.

To facilitate the learning process, most students find it expedient to learn genders by associating the appropriate ARTICLE with a given noun. In French, the masculine form of the definite article is le, and the feminine form is la. However, since elision of the vowel occurs before nouns that begin with a vowel (l'eau, l'église, etc.), it is better to associate nouns with the indefinite articles un or une. In Spanish, most nouns ending in o are masculine, and most nouns ending in a are feminine. The gender of nouns ending with other letters is best learned by association with the definite articles el or la (or un and una). In German, the definite articles der (masculine), die (feminine) and das (neuter) serve as the best adjuncts in learning the gender of nouns.

d) Most nouns have two NUMBERS: singular and plural. The ways plurals are formed, can be summarized as follows:

ENGLISH:

1. To most nouns -s is added: book-books, guide-guides, etc.
2. To nouns ending in -ch, -ss, -x, or -o preceded by a consonant, -es is added: march-marches, kiss-kisses, tax-taxes, hero-heroes, etc. However, if the ch in final position is pronounced like "k," only -s is added: monarch-monarchs.
3. With nouns ending in -y preceded by a vowel, the general rule (cf. 1) applies: bay-bays. But if the y is preceded by a consonant, it is changed to an i and -es is added: sky-skies.
4. Nouns ending in -f or -fe undergo a change to v: leaf-leaves, life-lives. There are exceptions in this category which are subject to the general rule (cf. 1): bluff, chief, dwarf, handkerchief, etc.
5. The plural of some nouns is formed in irregular ways: man-men, goose-geese, child-children, etc.

FRENCH:

1. Generally, an -s is added: livre-livres (books).
2. Nouns ending in -s (le colis), -x (la croix), -z (le nez), and also family names (Richelieu) remain unchanged.
3. To nouns ending in -au (le bateau), or -eu (le feu), plus a few ending in -ou (le hibou, le bijou, etc.) -x is added.
4. Most nouns ending in -al (le cheval) and a few ending in -ail (le travail, etc.) take the ending -aux in the plural.
5. Some plural noun forms are irregular:
   Madame-medames, monsieur-messieurs, mademoiselle-mesdemoiselles, etc.

GERMAN:

1. Masculine and neuter nouns ending in -er (der Lehrer), -el (der Schimmel), -en (der Besen), -chen (das Mädchen), -lein (das Äuglein), and neuter nouns with a Ge- prefix and an -e ending (das Gebirge) take no ending, but they often take an umlaut.

2. With seven exceptions (Geist, Gott, Leib, Mann, Rand, Wald, Wurm) monosyllabic masculine nouns (der Bach-die Bäche, etc.), and nouns ending in -nis (das Bildnis), -sal (das Schicksal), -ig (Der Honig), -ich (der Rettich), -ing (der Ring), plus about thirty feminine nouns (Bank, Frucht, Hand, etc.) and a number of neuter nouns, take an -e ending and (mostly) umlaut.
3. Most monosyllabic neuter nouns, plus nouns ending in -tum, also the seven "exceptions" listed in 2 above, take the plural ending -er plus umlaut.
4. Most feminine nouns, also masculine nouns denoting living beings and ending in -soph (Philosoph), -log (Philolog), -graph (Autograph), -ist (Solist), -ent (Student), -et (Poet), -arch (Patriarch), and all masculine nouns denoting living beings (Knabe, Löwe, Pole, etc.), also all adjectives (participles) used as nouns (der Gesunde, etc.) and a few nouns with mixed declension (das Ohr, der Staat, etc.) take the ending -(e)n in the plural.
5. The plural of some nouns are irregular (das Auto-Die Autos, der Park-die Parks or die Parke, etc.).

SPANISH:

1. Nouns ending in a short or unaccented vowel are changed to the plural by adding -s: hombre-hombres.
2. To nouns ending in a long or accented vowel, or in any consonant or -y, -es is added: rubí-rubíes, colonel-coloneles, buey-bueyes.
3. Nouns ending in -z undergo a letter change to c and take -es: nuez-nueces.
4. Among nouns with irregular plural forms, there are the nouns papá, mamá, café, etc.

OTHER:

e) In English there are three CASES: the subjective or nominative (nom.), the possessive or genitive (gen.), and the objective which is called dative (dat.) when an indirect object is involved and accusative (acc.) when there is a direct object. Each CASE constitutes one of the inflectional forms of a noun, pronoun or adjective that indicates its sense relation to other words, as that of subject, object, attribute, etc. This relation may also be indicated by word order which will be discussed elsewhere in the preview.

The nominative expresses the subject of the verb. Examples:

1. Henry is sleeping now. (a subject nominative)
   (F) Henri dort maintenant.
   (G) Heinrich schläft jetzt.
   (S) Enrique está durmiendo ahora.

   (O)_____

2. This is his umbrella. (a predicate nominative)
   (F) C'est son parapluie.
   (G) Das ist sein Regenschirm.
   (S) Eso es su paraguas.

   (O)_____

3. Our friend, the captain, has arrived. (a nominative through apposition)
   (F) Notre ami, le capitaine, est arrivé.
   (G) Unser Freund, der Kapitän, ist angekommen.
   (S) Nuestro amigo, el capitán, ha llegado.

   (O)_____

The genitive designates, or pertains to, that case of inflected nouns which expresses primarily the relation of source or possession, and also analogous relations. In English, these various relations are usually expressed by adding an apostrophe and an s to a noun in the singular (my brother's house) and only an apostrophe in the plural (my brothers' house). In standard German, inflectional endings are used to show relations: Das Haus meines Bruders (singular); das Haus meiner Brüder (plural). In everyday conversations, however, one finds a tendency among many speakers to avoid the genitive in favor of a dative construction:

Das Haus von meinem Bruder
(The house of my brother)

An equivalent form is also frequently used in English: The property of our landlord. It corresponds to the way possession is shown in French and Spanish as well, namely, by means of prepositional phrases:

(F) La maison de mon frère (singular)
La maison de mes frères (plural)
(S) La casa de mi hermano (singular)
La casa de mis hermanos (plural)

The dative designates or pertains to the case that characteristically indicates a person or thing as the one to whose advantage or disadvantage the expressed action, condition, or feeling is directed. Examples:

1. I give him the book.
(F) Je lui donne le livre.
(G) Ich gebe ihm das Buch.
(S) Yo le doy el libro.

In different constructions, the indirect object (underlined) comes after a preposition:

I give the book to him.
(F) Je donne le livre à lui.
(G) This construction is not used in German. However, there are not only prepositions but also verbs which govern the dative, which means that an indirect object has to follow in a given sentence.
(S) Yo le doy el libro a él.
The apparent redundancy (the indirect object appearing twice) is quite normal for this type of construction in Spanish.

(O)_____

The accusative designates the case which marks primarily the immediate object of the action or influence expressed by a verb (example one, below) or of the motion or tendency indicated by a preposition (example two):

1. I see the boy.
(F) Je vois le garçon.
(G) Ich sehe den Jungen.
(S) Yo veo al chico.

(O)_____

2. I look at the boy.
(F) Je regarde le garçon.
(G) Ich schaue auf den Jungen.
(S) Yo miro al chico.

(O)_____

In Spanish, when the direct object (underlined) is a person, a proper noun, or a personified noun, it must be preceded by the preposition a.

f) A NOUN CLAUSE may perform any function of a noun or substantive. Ordinarily, such a clause is introduced by words like the following: if, that, what, when, where, who, why, etc. Even though noun clauses can perform any function of a substantive, they are mostly used as subjects, as objects of verbs, or as objects of prepositions. In learning foreign languages, noun clauses must be used rather carefully because they often take subjunctive verbs, especially after verbs of emotion (fear, hope, etc.) or doubt, as we have seen earlier (cf. section C4f). In the following additional examples, the noun clauses serve as direct objects (underlined):

1. I doubt that he will come.
(F) Je doute qu'il vienne. (subjunctive)
(G) Ich bezweifle es, dass er kommt.
(S) Dudo que venga. (subjunctive)

(O)_____

ADJECTIVES

a) An ADJECTIVE is a word used

1. with a noun or noun equivalent to denote a quality of the thing named or something attributed to it. Example: a nice man (descriptive adjective)

2. to define its range of application: any man, or to specify a thing as distinct from something else: these manholes (definitive or limiting adjectives).

b) Among the more common limiting adjectives, one finds:

1. Demonstrative adjectives: this, that, these, those;

(F) ce, cet, cette, ces, cettes

(G) masc. nom. sing.: dieser-jener plur.: diese-jene
fem. nom. sing.: diese-jene plur.: diese-jene
neut. nom. sing.: dieses-jenes plur.: diese-jene
(also see sections c and i)

(S) masc. sing.: este plur.: estos (this-these)
fem. sing.: esta plur.: estas (this-these)
masc. sing.: ese plur.: esos (that-those)
fem. sing: esa plur.: esas (that-those)
If the object referred to is neither close to the speaker nor to the person addressed, use:
masc. sing.: aquel plur.: aquellos
fem. sing.: aquella plur.: aquellas

(O)

2. Adjectives specifying quantity: much, many, few, some, certain, etc.

(F) chaque, tout(e), certains, nulle, différentes, maint (many a), plusieurs (several), quelque(s), aucun.

(G) manche, viele, einige, mehrere, gewisse, etc.

(S) alguno(s), cada, todo(s), diferentes, muchas, cierto, un tal, etc.

(O)

3. Adjectives indicating number: one-first, two-second, etc.

(F) cinq-cinquième, neuf-neuvième, un-primier, seize-seizième, trente-cinq--trente-cinquième, etc.
(G) eins-erste, zwei-zweite, drei-dritte, hundert-hundertste, etc.
(S) uno-primero, dos-segundo (-da), trés-tercero (in Spanish ordinals above three are rarely used).

(O)

4. Possessive adjectives: my, his, her, our, their, your, etc.

(F) mon, ton, son/ma, ta, sa; notre, votre, leur; mes, tes, ses, nos, vos, leurs
(G) mein, dein, sein, unser, euer, ihr, Ihr
(S) mi--mis, tu--tus, su--sus

(O)

5. Interrogative adjectives: which, what, what a(n), etc.

(F) quel, quelle, quels, quelles
(G) welch-, was für..., etc.
(S) que, cual, cuales, etc.

(O)

6. The definite and indefinite articles: the, a(n)

(F) le, l', la, les, un, une
(G) der, die, das, des, dem, den, ein, eine, etc.
(S) el, la, los, las, un, uno, una, unos, unas

(O)

c) Except for the demonstratives "this-these" and "that-those," as well as the quantifier "much-many" no ADJECTIVES ARE INFLECTED in English to agree in gender, number, and/or case. In French, German, and Spanish, the situation is quite different. For example in French and Spanish the demonstrative adjectives (cf. b1 above) show agreement in gender and number; in German, they are also inflected for case.

Example:

	Singular			Plural
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	(all genders)
Nom.	dieser	diese	dieses	diese
Gen.	dieses	dieser	dieses	dieser
Dat.	diesem	dieser	diesem	diesen
Acc.	diesen	diese	dieses	diese

Whether an adjective is inflected or not, depends on its position; its position depends on how it is used. Adjectives may be used in three ways:

1. attributively: Old soldiers never die.
   (F) Les soldats vieux ne meurent jamais.
   (G) Alte Soldaten sterben nie.
   (S) Los soldados viejos no mueren nunca.

   (O)_____

2. in the predicate: She is rich.
   (F) Elle est riche.
   (G) Sie ist reich.
   (S) Ella está rica.

   (O)_____

3. in apposition: Tired and sad, the man enters the house.
   (F) Fatigué et triste, l'homme entre la maison.
   (G) Müde und traurig geht der Mann ins Haus.
   (S) Cansado y triste el hombre entra a la casa.

   (O)_____

In French and Spanish, the descriptive adjective (example 1) tends to follow the noun it modifies unless it expresses a quality taken for granted, inherent, or assumed. Examples: (F) la blanche neige, (S) la blanca nieve (the white snow), (F) les belles fleurs, (S) las bellas flores (the pretty flowers), etc. The positioning of some adjectives in Romance languages is critical because it affects the meaning. For example, in French, un grand homme is (assumed to be) a "great man;" but un homme grand is a "tall man." A pauvre garçon is a "poor fellow" who may be quite rich; if he happened to be a pauper, he would be called un garçon pauvre. Other adjectives in this category are: ancien(ne), certain(e), moyen

(average), etc. Some of the Spanish adjectives that change their meaning depending upon whether they precede or follow the noun, are: gran-grande, pobre, mismo (-a), nuevo (-a).

Even adjectives that appear in the predicate take endings in French and Spanish. In English and German they do not (cf. example 2 above). However, when an adjective is used attributively in German (see example 1), it must agree in gender, number and case with the noun it modifies. This Germanic feature is reflected in Old English, where a distinction also had to be made between weak and strong adjective endings which is still common practice in modern German.

d) The variation or modification of an adjective to indicate various degrees of the quality named by it, is called COMPARISON. There are three levels of comparison:

1. the positive: small, beautiful, etc.
   (F) petit(e), beau (fem. belle), etc.
   (G) klein, schön, etc.
   (S) pequeño (-a), hermoso (-a), etc.

   (O)_____

2. the comparative: smaller, more beautiful, etc.
   (F) plus petit(e), plus beau (f. plus belle), etc.
   (G) kleiner, schöner, etc.
   (S) más pequeño (-a), mas hermoso (-a), etc.

   (O)_____

3. the superlative: the smallest, the most beautiful, etc.
   (F) le plus petit(e), le plus beau (la plus belle), etc.
   (G) am kleinsten, am schönsten, etc.
   (S) lo más pequeño (-a), lo más hermoso (-a), etc.

   (O)_____

The examples show that there are two basic ways in which comparisons are made. One is characteristic of Germanic languages and the other of those tongues which are based on Latin. In English, both ways are represented.

The endings -er and -est are used with adjectives that are of Germanic origin, and the words more and most are employed with adjectives of non-Germanic ancestry. Thus, it would be equally incorrect to say "small--more small--the most small" or "beautiful--beautifuller--the beautifullest." Such corruption of language serves to illustrate how it can sound to a native when a student is careless and imposes patterns and sounds of his own language upon the one he is learning. However, the inability to make an utterance sound perfectly authentic the very first time, should not keep a learner from opening his mouth. After all, nobody ever learned to play the piano either just by studying some rules and having someone demonstrate. Any skill--and that includes speech, can only be acquired through a good deal of practice.

e) NOUNS USED AS ADJECTIVES

In French and Spanish, nouns cannot be used to modify nouns. This means that constructions like "evening dress," "roundtrip ticket," "orange juice," etc. are not possible in these languages. Instead, prepositional phrases are commonly employed to express the same concepts:

(F) tenue de soirée, billet d'aller et retour, jus d'orange, etc.
(S) vestido de noche, billete de ida y vuelta, jugo de naranja, etc.

(O)_____

In German, the pattern is identical to English usage, except for a greater tendency toward the formation of noun compounds:

(G) Abendkleid, Rundfahrkarte, Apfelsinensaft, etc.

(O)_____

Compounding often occurs in English as well: roundtrip, bookkeeper, cockfight, etc. In many cases, French and Spanish have one-word equivalents for noun compounds: (F) négligé (morning dress), comptable (bookkeeper); (S) torero (bullfighter), boletero (ticket agent), etc.

f) There are two ARTICLES, a definite and an indefinite (cf. b6 above). In English and German, there are no plural forms of the indefinite article. Such forms do exist in French and Spanish however. When they are translated into English, the word "some" is mostly used to render the meaning they carry. But even when true equivalents exist, a person translating from one language into another soon finds out that articles are not used the same way in English, French, German and Spanish. In French and German, for example, there is no article used in stating a person's occupation, religion, nationality or rank:

1. I am a student.	He is an American.
(F) Je suis etudiant.	(F) Il est Americain.
(G) Ich bin Student.	(G) Er ist Amerikaner.
(S) Soy estudiante.	(S) Es Americano.
(O)_____	(O)_____

2. When characteristics of entire groups or categories are identified, however, the definite article normally precedes the subject noun in a French, German, and Spanish sentence (generic use of article): Americans have no problems.

(F) Les americains n'ont pas de problèmes.
(G) Die Amerikaner haben keine Probleme.
(S) Los americanos no tienen problemas.

(O)_____

3. In Spanish, the definite article is also used for telling time:

(S) Son las dos (it is 2:00 o'clock)

4. In French and Spanish, the definite article is used with the days of the week to indicate repeated or routine action in the sense of "every":

(F) Elle étudie le lundi (she studies on Mondays).
(S) Ella estudia los lunes (she studies on Mondays).

(O)_____

Notice the use of the singular in French and the plural in Spanish. If the singular were used in Spanish, it would mean only "this (coming) Monday."

5. Frequently, the definite article is used with the names of countries:

(F) La France, le Canadá, la Suisse, etc.
(G) die Schweiz, die Türkei, der Iran (plus a few others)
(S) la Argentina, el Brasil, los Estados Unidos, etc.

(O)_____

When the article is part of the name, like with "El Salvador" and the German examples, it must always be used.

6. In Spanish, the use of the definite article is also imperative with names and titles of persons:

(S) La señora Sanchez, el embajador Gomez, etc.

(O)_____

7. In French and Spanish, the definite article is also used with names of languages:

(F) L'anglais me fait mourir.
(S) El inglés me mata (English is killing me).

(O)_____

8. If it is obvious who the possessor is, the definite article is often used in Spanish instead of a possessive adjective (my, his, etc.):

(S) Jorge y la mujer se divorcian (George and his wife are getting divorced).

(O)_____

9. In French and Spanish, the masculine definite article is contracted with certain prepositions: (F) à le becomes au, à les becomes aux, de le becomes du and de les becomes des which can get rather confusing in connection with the partitive, a characteristic feature of French grammar expressing partition or denoting a part of a real or assumed whole.

(S) a el becomes al and de el is contracted to del.

10. In German the masculine and neuter dative article is contracted in the singular with certain prepositions: bei dem becomes beim and in dem becomes im. Also, the neuter accusative article das is contracted with the preposition in and becomes ins.

These, and other uses of articles, will be learned in context as a person studies a particular language.

g) Speakers of English may find some of the features of other languages rather cumbersome, and they may wonder why the users are putting up with them. The same thing could be said about English by speakers of other languages. However, it is much more fruitful to look at divergent features from their positive side. One of the advantages of having adjectives agree in gender and number, for example, becomes apparent in the USE OF ADJECTIVES AS NOUNS. (F) la vieille, (G) die Alte, and (S) la vieja mean "the old woman." In English, one could not convey this meaning simply by saying "the old" because the adjective reflects neither gender nor number.

h) There are two types of NUMERALS: cardinals and ordinal. Cardinal numerals (one, two, five, ten, etc.) answer the question "how many?" They can serve as adjectives or nouns. Ordinal numerals (first, second, etc.) answer the question "which one?" or "what one?" Except for "one" (F: un-une, G: ein-eine-eins, S: un, uno-una), cardinal numbers are not inflected in the languages under discussion here. However, the ordinal numbers are inflected and treated like other adjectives to agree in gender and number with the noun(s) they modify. In German, agreement of case is also essential. Ordinal numerals are used less frequently in some Romance languages than in Germanic ones. For example, with dates, the ordinals are rarely used in Spanish: el 15 (quince) de febrero (the 15 of February).

i) DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES (this, that, these, those) point out a particular person, place or thing. They are limiting adjectives and precede the nouns they modify (cf b1 above). The use of these adjectives is the same in all languages discussed here, except that they are inflected to agree in gender and number in French and Spanish; in German, they also agree with case.

j) POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES (my, your, his, her, etc.) denote ownership or some relationship felt as analogous. In French and Spanish, the possessive agrees with the thing possessed rather than with the possessor, as it does in English and German (cf. b4 above). Examples:

1. George sold his car.
(F) George a vendu sa voiture.
(G) George hat seinen Wagen verkauft.
(S) Jorge ha vendido su coche.

(O)_____

One reason why the possessive must agree with the thing possessed in the Romance languages, becomes apparent when one analyzes the following Spanish sentence:

(S) Pedro e Isabella, los gemelos, han visto su madre,

which translates into "Pedro and Isabella, the twins, have seen their mother. If the Spanish possessive were in the plural (sus) as it is in English, it would mean that P. and I. have seen "their mothers" which suggests the biological paradox that the twins had different mothers.

If the meaning is unambiguous, the possessive adjective is often replaced by the definite article in French, German and Spanish (cf. f8 above). Examples:

1. She put her hand in her pocket.
(F) Elle a mis la main dans la poche.
(G) Er steckte die Hand in die Tasche.
(S) (El) puso la mano en el bolsillo.

(O)_____

k) INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES (what? whose? which?) are used in asking questions. In the absence of a noun, they can also serve as interrogative pronouns. When they serve as adjectives, they normally precede the noun they modify. In French and Spanish interrogative adjectives must agree in gender and number and in German also with case (cf. b5).

Examples:

1. What women are here?
   (F) Quelles femmes sont ici? (fem. plur.)
   (G) Welche Frauen sind hier? (neut. nom. sing.)
   (S) Cuales mujeres están aqui? (plur.)

   (O)_____

2. Whose pencil is this?
   (F) Duquel est ce crayon? (interrogative is a pronoun)
   (G) Wessen Bleistift ist das? (masc. gen. sing. - literary style)
   (S) De quien es este lapiz? (interrogative is a pronoun)

   (O)_____

3. Which book is more expensive?
   (F) Quel livre est plus cher? (masc. sing.)
   (G) Welches Buch ist teurer? (neut. nom. sing.)
   (S) Cual libro es más caro? (sing.)

   (O)_____

1) INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES (some, several, any, few, many, etc.) are also used pronominally when they do not accompany nouns. The following are most common:

   (F) aucun, -une (any), certain, -e (certain), nul, nulle (no, not one), plusieurs (several), tel, telle (such, such a), tout, toute, tous, toutes (all), etc.

   (G) jeder (every), alle (all), viele (many), einige (several, some), wenig (few), etc.

   (S) algún, -o(s), -a(s) (some), diversos, -as, varios, -as (several), cualquier, cualquiera (any), unos, unas (few), muchos, -as, etc.

   (O)

Example:

1. Several visitors will arrive today.
   (F) Plusieurs visiteurs arrivent aujourd'hui.
   (G) Einige Besucher kommen heute an.
   (S) Varios visitadores van a llegar hoy.

   (O)_____

m) ADJECTIVE PHRASES serve as adjectives. Prepositional, infinitive, and participial phrases may be used as adjective phrases.

Example:

1. Prepositional phrase: The apples on the tree are sweet.
   (F) Les pommes sur l'arbre sont douces.
   (G) Die Äpfel auf dem Baum sind süss.
   (S) Las manzanas en el arbol son dulces.

   (O)_____

2. Infinitive phrase: We have an assignment to complete.
   (F) Nous avons une tâche assignée à finir.
   (G) Wir haben eine Aufgabe zu beenden.
   (S) Tenemos una tarea a complir.

   (O)_____

3. Participial phrase: The professor teaching the course is my cousin. Instead of this type of construction, a relative clause is commonly used in French, German and Spanish.

   (O)_____

n) An ADJECTIVE CLAUSE serves as an adjective. Adjective clauses are introduced either by a relative pronoun (who, whose, which, that, what) or by a relative adverb (where, when, why, etc.). Examples:

1. This is the house that Jack built.
   (F) C'est la maison que Jacque a construit.
   (G) Das ist das Haus, das Hans gebaut hat.
   (S) Esta as la casa que Juan ha construido.

   (O)_____

2. This is the office where Beatrice worked.
   (F) C'est le bureau ou Beatrice a travaillé.
   (G) Das ist das Büro, wo Beate gearbeitet hat.
   (S) Esta es la oficina donde Beatriz ha trabajado.

   (O)_____

o) A PREDICATE ADJECTIVE modifies the subject of a sentence. In English it is used 1) with the linking verbs be, seem, and become and 2) with the verbs of the senses: feel, look, smell, taste. Examples:

1. The bicycles are new.
2. The candy tastes good.

In other languages, predicate adjectives are also used with other verbs.

In English and German, predicate adjectives are not inflected, but in French and Spanish, they must agree in gender and number with the noun they modify. Example:

(F) Les bicyclettes sont neuves.
(G) Die Fahrräder sind neu.
(S) Las bicicletas son nuevas.

PRONOUNS

a) A PRONOUN can take the place of a substantive which may consist of a single noun or of several words. The substantive for which a pronoun is substituted, is called "antecedent." A pronoun often reflects gender (his, her; F: son-sa, etc.), and in some languages it always reflects number as well. In a few languages it also reflects case (G: unsres Nachbarn Garten). The sentence "I[1] give it[2] to him[3] because it[2] is his[4]," for example, includes 1) a subject pronoun (nominative), 2) two direct object pronouns (accusative), 3) an indirect object pronoun (dative), and 4) a possessive pronoun (genitive).

b) Pronouns are named according to their function. A comparative view of the following English, French, German and Spanish pronouns appears below:

I. Personal pronouns
   1. Subject pronouns (nominative case)
   2. Direct object pronouns (accusative case)
   3. Indirect object pronouns (dative case)
   4. Reflexive pronouns (accusative or dative case)
   5. Prepositional pronouns

II. Demonstrative pronouns
III. Possessive pronouns (genitive case)
IV. Interrogative pronouns
V. Relative pronouns
VI. Indefinite pronouns

I, 1. PERSONAL SUBJECT PRONOUNS (nominative) are used as the subject of a verb. Compare:

(E)	I	(thou), you	he, she, it	we	(ye) you	they
(F)	je	tu, vous	il, elle	nous	vous	ils, elles
(G)	ich	du, Sie	er, sie, es	wir	ihr, Sie	sie
(S)	yo	tu, usted	él, ella	nosotros	vosotros, ustedes	ellos, ellas

(O) _____

I, 2. PERSONAL DIRECT OBJECT PRONOUNS (accusative) are used as the direct objects of a verb. Sometimes, the direct object is called the objective complement because it completes the predicate and receives the action of the

verb directly: Example: He ate the candy. He ate it. Compare:

(E)	me	(thee), you	him, her, it	us	you	them
(F)	me	te	le, la, se	nous	vous	les, se
(G)	mich	dich, Sie	ihn, sie, es	uns	euch, Sie	sie
(S)	me	te	lo, la	nos	os	los, las

(O)_____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

I, 3. PERSONAL INDIRECT OBJECT PRONOUNS (dative) receive the action of the verb indirectly. Example: She sent me a letter. The indirect object identifies the person to whom or for whom an action is performed. The term "dative" is derived from the word datus which is the past participle of dare (to give). Therefore, the dative case can be used only with verbs that represent the idea of giving or transferring. Compare:

(E)	me	(thee) you	him, her, it	us	you	them
(F)	me	te	lui, lui, se	nous	vous	leur
(G)	mir	dich, Sie	dir, Ihnen	uns	euch, Ihnen	ihnen
(S)	me	te	te	nos	os	les

(O)_____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

I, 4. PERSONAL REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS (accusative or dative) are compound forms in English (myself, ourselves, etc.); in French, German, and Spanish, they are not. In all four languages the reflexive pronouns show that the object of the verb is the same person as the subject. Example: He cures himself. Compare:

			himself			
(E)	myself	yourself	herself, itself	ourselves	yourselves	themselves
(F)	me	te	se	nous	vous	se
(G)	mich	dich	sich	uns	euch	sich
(S)	me	te	se	nos	os	se

(O)_____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

Note. In English, the reflexive pronoun is also used for emphasis or intensification. In French, German and Spanish, other words are used.

Example: (E) Paul did it himself.
(F) Paul l'a fait lui-même.
(G) Paul hat es selbst (or selber) getan.
(S) Pablo mismo lo hizo.

(O)_____

I, 5. PERSONAL PREPOSITIONAL PRONOUNS are used as the objects of prepositions. Since they are disjoined or separated from the verb, they are sometimes called "disjunctive pronouns" in foreign-language texts.--The pronouns that are used in conjunction with verbs are called "conjunctive pronouns."

In German, the preposition governs the form of the pronoun. Some prepositions call for a dative form, some for an accusative one, some call for either form, and some for a genitive one. In the Romance languages, prepositional pronouns are often used for clarification or emphasis. Examples:

(F) Elle me le donne à moi. (S) Ella me lo da a mí. (She gives it to me).

Compare:

(E)	me	you	him, her, it	us	you	them
(F)	moi	toi	lui, elle	nous	vous	eux, elles
(G. gen.)	meiner	deiner	seiner, ihrer, seiner	unser	euer	ihrer, Ihrer
(G. dat.)	mir	dir	ihm, ihr, ihm	uns	euch	ihnen, Ihnen
(G. acc.)	mich	dich	ihn, sie, es	uns	euch	sie, Sie
(S)	mí	ti	él, ella, usted	nosotros(-as)	vosotros(-as)	ellos, ellas, ustedes

(O) _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

II. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS point out a particular person, place or thing (this, those, etc.). Sometimes, the demonstrative pronoun is accompanied by the word "one" in English (that one). This is not done in other languages. However, the standard French equivalent for "this one" and "that one" contains an element which is reminiscent of colloquial English: celui-ci can be interpreted as "this one here" and celui-là as "that one there." Compare further:

(E)	this	that	these	those
(F)	masc. and fem. sing.		masc. and fem. plur.	
	celui-ci	celle-ci	ceux-ci	celles-ci
	celui-là	celle-là	ceux-là	celles-là

for indefinite entities: ceci, cela (contracted to ça)

(G)	sing.: masculine	feminine	neuter	plur.: all genders
nom.	dieser, jener	diese, jene	dieses, jenes	diese, jene
gen.	dieses, jenes	dieser, jener	dieses, jenes	dieser, jener
dat.	diesem, jenem	dieser, jener	diesem, jenem	diesen, jenen

	acc.	diesen, jenen	diese, jene	dieses, jenes	diese, jene
(S)	masc. and fem. sing.			masc. and fem. plur.	
	éste, ésta (this)			éstos, éstas (these)	
	ése, ésa (that			ésos, ésas (those)	
	aquél, aquélla (that)			aquéllos, aquéllas (those)	
	for indefinite entities:	esto, eso, aquello			

(O)

III. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS indicate the thing possessed and the possessor. Some grammarians classify all possessives as adjectives. However, for the sake of convenience, it is better to differentiate between "my" (adjective) and "mine" (pronoun). Upon learning German, speakers of English need to remember that pronouns have to agree with the possessor in gender, number, and case. In French and Spanish, the pronoun has to agree in gender and number with the thing possessed (not with the possessor). Compare:

(E) mine yours his, hers, its ours yours theirs

(F)

	masc. and fem. sing.		masc. and fem. plur.	
mine:	le mien	la mienne	les miens	les miennes
yours:	le tien	la tienne	les tiens	les tiennes
his, hers:	le sien	la sienne	les siens	les siennes
ours:	le nôtre	la nôtre	les nôtres	les nôtres
yours:	le vôtre	la vôtre	les vôtres	les vôtres
theirs:	le leur	la leur	les leurs	les leurs

(G)

	(mine)	(thine)	(his, hers, its)	(ours)	(yours)	(theirs, yours)
masc.	meiner	deiner	seiner, ihrer, seiner	unsrer	eurer	ihrer, Ihrer
fem.	meine	deine	seine, ihre, seine	unsre	eure	ihre, Ihre
neut.	mein(e)s	dein(e)s	sein(e)s, ihres, sein(e)s	unsres	eures	ihres, Ihres

Only the nominative forms are given here. In the other cases, an alternate form of the possessive is usually preferred: des meinen (gen. sing.), den deinen (acc. sing.), etc. Another existing form (der meinige, etc.) is less popular in formal writing than in colloquial speech.

(S)	masc. and fem. sing.		masc. and fem. plur.	
mine:	el mío	la mía	los míos	las mías
yours:	el tuyo	la tuya	los tuyos	las tuyas
his, hers:	el suyo	la suya	los suyos	las suyas
ours:	el nuestro	la nuestra	los nuestros	las nuestras
yours:	el vuestro	la vuestra	los vuestros	las vuestras
theirs:	el suyo	la suya	los suyos	las suyas

(O)

IV. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS are used in asking questions. Compare:

(E) singular and plural			
nom.	who, whoever	which, whichever	what, whatever
gen.	whose, whosever	of which, of whichever	of what, of whatever
dat. and acc.	whom, whomever	which, whichever	what, whatever

(F)	subject	direct object	obj. of a preposition
persons:	qui (who)	qui (whom)	qui (whom)
	qui est-ce qui (who)	qui est-ce que (what)	
things:	qu'est-ce qui (who)	que (what)	quoi (what
		qu'est-ce que (what)	

plus the following:

	masc. and fem. sing.	masc. and fem. plur.	(transl.)
nom. and acc.	lequel, laquelle	lesquels, desquelles	which, which one(s)
gen.	duquel, de laquelle	desquels, desquelles	of which
dat.	auquel, à laquelle	auxquels, auxquelles	to which

(G) nom.: wer (who)
gen.: wessen (whose)
dat.: wem (whom)
acc.: wen (whom)
nom. and acc.: was (what)
wieviel (how much)
was für ein (what kind of)--the word "ein" is subject to gender and case. It can only be used in the singular. In the plural (and, if desired, also in the singular), the interrogative welch- is used with the inflections of a der-word.

(S) 1. to ask which person: ¿quién? (who, whom-singular)
¿quiénes? (who, whom-plural)
2. to ask which persons or things: ¿cuál? (which, which one, what, who--singular) ¿cuáles? (which, which ones, what, who--plural).
3. to ask which thing: ¿qué? (what--singular and plural).
4. the possessive (genitive): ¿de quién plus a form of ser (whose)
5. to ask about quantity: ¿cuánto? (masc. sing.) ¿cuanta? (fem. sing.) ¿cuantos? (masc. plur.) ¿cuantas? (fem. plur.). The English equivalents are "how much?" and "how many?".

The English interrogatives "What is...?" and "What are...?" have two equivalents in Spanish. When the answer is expected to be comparable to a definition, ¿que es...? and ¿que son...? are used. When the expected answer constitutes one of a number of choices, ¿cual es...? and ¿cuales son...? are used.

(O)

V. A RELATIVE PRONOUN refers to a substantive (antecedent) in a preceding clause; it relates a second clause to a preceding one. The clause that is introduced by a relative pronoun modifies the main (independent) clause. Thus, it has the function of an adjective (agreement with gender and number). The relative pronoun may be in the nominative, genitive, dative, or accusative, depending upon its function in the clause it introduces.

Examples:

nom. The writer who lives here is very successful.
gen. He is a man whose time has come.
dat. The person to whom you are referring is my friend.
acc. Your friend, whom I called yesterday, is very nice.

Compare:

(E) singular and plural

nom.:	who	which	what	that
gen.:	whose	whose	of what	of which (whose)
dat. and acc.:	whom	which	what	that

(F)	subject	direct object	obj. of a preposition
persons:	qui, ce qui (who, what)	que, ce que (whom, what)	qui (whom)
things:	qui, ce qui (which, what)	que, ce que (which, what)	lequel, lesquels laquelle, lesquelles (which); quoi (what)

The preposition de plus the relative pronoun combine to form dont. However, this compound may not be used after a preposition (the preposition is already part of it). Another combination, où is often formed with either à, dans or vers plus the relative pronoun.

(G) There are two sets of relative pronouns in German: der and welcher. They can be used interchangeably. However, they cannot be omitted as they sometimes are in English.

	sing.: masc.	fem.	neut.	plur.: all genders
nom.:	der	die	das	die
	welcher	welche	welches	welche
gen.:	dessen	deren	dessen	deren
	"	"	"	"
dat.:	dem	der	dem	denen
	welchem	welcher	welchem	welchen
acc.:	den	die	das	die
	welchen	welche	welches	welche

(S) The Spanish forms may be grouped in the following categories:

1. que (who, whom, that, which)
2. quien, quienes (who, whom)
3. el que, la que, los que, las que (the one who, the one that, he who, those who)
   el cual, la cual, los cuales, las cuales (who, that, which)
4. lo que (which, that which, what)
   lo cual (which)
5. cuanto, cuanta, cuantos, cuantas (all that, all those who)

Discussion:

1. Que does not change to reflect gender and number. It may serve as subject or object and can refer to persons or things. However, after a preposition, it usually refers only to things. After expressions of quantity, que is equivalent to English "to": poco que hacer--little to do.

2. Quien, plural: quienes, refers to persons or things without regard to gender. It usually occurs after prepositions. After the prepositions de

and con, it may be replaced by que. Sometimes, like in the proverb quien busca halla (he who seeks shall find), quien lacks an antecedent in which case it may be translated as "he who," "she who," "the one who," "those who," "who," etc.

3. El que, las cuales, etc. are modified to reflect gender and number which serves to avoid confusion when there is more than one possible antecedent. After certain prepositions, they are also given preference over the relative pronouns que and quien which often combine into conjunctions with the prepositions para, por, and sin.

4. Lo que and la cual (which) are neuter forms used to refer to an idea or statement already expressed. Generally, they are interchangeable. However, lo que has an additional function: it may serve at the beginning of a sentence (not just as a relative pronoun within a sentence). When it stands in initial position, it is comparable to the English neuter pronoun "what."

5. The relative pronoun cuanto is changed to reflect gender and number of its antecedent.

(O)

VI. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS may also be used as adjectives. In the absence of an accompanying noun, they serve as pronouns. Examples: "some," "other," "any," "one," "several," "few," "many," "none," "another," "each," "all," etc.

(F) on (one, etc.), chacun (each), personne (nobody), chiconque (whoever), quelqu'un (someone), rien (nothing), autrui (another), l'un l'autre (each other), l'un (the one), l'autre (the other).

The following can serve as pronouns or adjectives: aucun (not one), certain (certain), nul (no), plusieurs (several), tel (such), tout (all). Aucun, nul, and rien are used in the negative.

(G) man (one, they, people)

einer, irgendeiner (one, somebody)

jemand (someone, somebody)

niemand (no one, nobody)

keiner (no one, nobody)

jeder (everyone)

alle (everybody, all)

viel, viele (much, many)

einige (several)

wenig, wenige (little, a few)

(S) alguien (someone) and nadie (no one) refer to persons not previously mentioned. When reference is made to someone mentioned already, alguno and ninguno are used. Alguno(s), -a(s) can also serve as an adjective. Algo means "something" when it is used as a pronoun, and "somewhat" when it serves as an adverb. Nada means "nothing" or "not anything." The indefinite pronoun uno constitutes one of three ways to express "one" in Spanish. The other two ways involve the plural of a verb and the reflexive pronoun se: Mañana compran cinco toros (tomorrow one buys--or they buy, five bulls); por esa avenida se va al centro (one goes downtown via this avenue).

A comparison of pronouns makes it clear that a student of foreign languages who relies too heavily on his own language as a guide, is bound to be misled. Even where perfectly acceptable equivalents may exist in the target language, they are not always used the same way. The variations in forms and usages undoubtedly make foreign language study more difficult, but they also help expand the learner's communicative ability and his horizon.

VERBS

a) A VERB is a word which asserts an action or a state or condition concerning a person, place, or thing. There are simple and compound verb forms: I am, I have been.

b) In compound forms, the first verb is called an AUXILIARY or HELPING VERB. "To have" is the most common auxiliary in English. In Old English, "to be" was also used as an auxiliary as we can see, for example, in the song "Joy to the World, the Lord is come." In French, German and Spanish both of these auxiliaries are still in active use: (F) avoir, être; (G) haben, sein; (S) haber, estar. Other existing auxiliaries are introduced in first-year language texts.

c) If a verb shows action directly performed on some person or thing which serves as the direct object, it is called TRANSITIVE.

Example 1:

He ate the apple.

In addition to a direct object, a transitive verb can also take an indirect object.

Example 2:

He gave me the apple.

Many transitive verbs can be used without a direct object in which case they are said to be used intransitively.

Example 3:

He ate, and we watched.

d) Some verbs can only be used intransitively, which means, they do not show action directly performed on some person or thing. They are called INTRANSITIVE VERBS.

Example 1:

Jack laughed.

The example shows the action as limited to the agent or subject "Jack." The action is intransitive since it is not passing over to an object. Being able to identify verbs as transitive or intransitive can be tremendously helpful in selecting the proper auxiliary (to be, or to have).

e) Verbs are also classified as being in the ACTIVE or PASSIVE VOICE, depending upon whether the subject acts or is acted upon. Sentences in the passive voice must have a transitive verb in English, French, German, Spanish, and some other languages. In the Romance languages, the past participle in constructions such as the following, need to agree in gender and number with the subject of the verb:

(E) The houses were constructed by that architect.
(F) Les maisons ont été construites par cet architecte.
(G) Die Häuser sind von jenem Architekten gebaut worden.
(S) Las casas fueron construídas por aquel arquitecto.

(O)_____

In the active voice, the sentence would read as follows:

That architect constructed the houses.

f) Verbs have two NUMBERS: singular and plural. The number of a verb is determined by the number of its subject. The verb shows agreement in number and person (see section g below).

g) In modern languages there are three PERSONS: first, second, and third. Each of these can be used in the singular and in the plural. The first denotes the speaker(s), the second the person(s) addressed, and the third, the person(s) or thing(s) spoken about.

In English, the subject pronoun is usually the only thing to indicate person. In other languages the verb itself is inflected in all tenses to indicate PERSON. Examples (verb conjugation--present tense, indicative mood):

(E) to buy	singular	plural
1st pers.:	I buy	we buy
2nd pers.:	you buy	you buy
3rd pers.:	he, she, it buys	they buy

(F) acheter		
1st pers.:	j'achète	nous achetons
2nd pers.:	tu achètes, vous achetez	vous achetez
3rd pers.:	il, elle achète	ils, elles achètent

(G) kaufen		
1st pers.:	ich kaufe	wir kaufen
2nd pers.:	du kaufst, Sie kaufen	ihr kauft, Sie kaufen
3rd pers.:	er, sie, es kauft	sie kaufen

(S) comprar		
1st pers.:	yo compro	nosotros compramos
2nd pers.:	tu compras, Ud. compra	vosotros compráis, Uds. compran
3rd pers.:	él, ella compra	ellos, ellas compran

(O)

h) Verbs may be in one of three MOODS:

1. indicative, when the action or state expressed by the verb denotes or is conceived as fact.

2. subjunctive, when the action or state expressed by the verb denotes or is conceived as a matter of supposal, wish, possibility, etc.

3. imperative, when the verb expresses a command.

i) The SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD is comparatively rare in English, but in other languages it is quite common, especially in dependent clauses. Speakers of English are often unaware of using the subjunctive because the verb form is identical to that of the past tense: We were rich. (past tense)

If I were rich, I would travel. (subjunctive)

Most often, the subjunctive is used in English with the modal auxiliaries: would, should, might, etc.

j) TENSE means the time of the action of the verb, such as past, present, future, etc. There are <u>simple</u> tenses involving one verb and <u>compound</u> tenses involving more than one. Following are some sample sentences in the different tenses (all in the first person singular):

1. Present Indicative: I learn
2. Present Indicative Emphatic: I do learn.
3. Present Indicative Progressive: I am learning.
4. Imperfect Indicative: I learned.
5. Imperfect Indicative Progressive: I was learning.
6. Imperfect Indicative Progressive: I used to learn.
7. Preterit or Past Indefinite: I learned.
8. Preterit Emphatic: I did learn.
9. Future: I will learn.
10. Conditional: I would learn.
11. Present Subjunctive: I may learn.
12. Imperfect or Past Subjunctive: I might learn.
13. Present Perfect or Past Indefinite: I have learned.
14. Pluperfect Indicative or Past Perfect: I had learned.
15. Past Anterior or Preterit Perfect: I had learned.
16. Future Perfect or Future Anterior: I will have learned.
17. Conditional Perfect: I would have learned.
18. Present Perfect or Past Subjunctive: I may have learned.
19. Pluperfect or Past Perfect Subjunctive: I might have learned.
20. Imperative or Command: Let us learn! (1st pers. plur.)

Verbs can be fully conjugated in any tense except the imperative where only the second person singular and plural and the first person plural exist.

FRENCH and GERMAN sample equivalents to the above:

1.	J'apprends.	1. Ich lerne.
2.	(no special form available, number 1 is used instead).	
3.	(no special form available, number 1 is used instead).	
4.	J'apprenais.	4. Ich lernte.
5.	(no special form available, number 4 is used instead).	
6.	(no special form available, number 4 is used instead).	
7.	J'appris.	7. Ich lernte (same as 4).
8.	(no special form available, number 7 is used instead).	
9.	J'apprendrai.	9. Ich werde lernen.
10.	J'apprendrais	10. Ich würde lernen.
11.	J'apprenne.	11. Ich mag lernen.
12.	J'apprisse.	12. Ich möchte lernen.
13.	J'ai appris	13. Ich habe gelernt.
14.	J'avais appris.	14. Ich hatte gelernt.
15.	J'eus appris.	15. Ich hatte gelernt (cf. 14).
16.	J'aurai appris.	16. Ich werde gelernt haben.
17.	J'aurais appris.	17. Ich würde gelernt haben.
18.	J'aie appris.	18. Ich mag gelernt haben.
19.	J'eusse appris.	19. Ich mochte gelernt haben.
20.	apprenons! (1st pers. plur.)	20. Lernen wir! (1st pers. plur.)

SPANISH(and other) sample equivalents:

1.	Aprendo.	1._____
2.	(no emphatic form).	2._____
3.	Estoy aprendiendo.	3._____
4.	Aprendía.	4._____
5.	Estaba aprendiendo.	5._____
6.	(no special form, use 5)	6._____
7.	Aprendí.	7._____
8.	(no emphatic form)	8._____
9.	Aprenderé.	9._____
10.	Aprendería.	10._____
11.	Aprenda.	11._____
12.	Aprendiera. Aprendiese.	12._____
13.	He aprendido.	13._____
14.	Había aprendido.	14._____
15.	Hube aprendido.	15._____
16.	Habré aprendido.	16._____
17.	Habría aprendido.	17._____
18.	Haya aprendido.	18._____
19.	Hubiera aprendido.	19._____
20.	¡Aprendamos!	20._____

Since the verb inflection is indicative of (1st, 2nd or 3rd) person and number, the personal pronoun is often omitted in Spanish except when emphasis is desired.

It should be pointed out that the verb tenses are not employed the same way in all the languages discussed here. Some of them, like the past definite (preterit) in French, are only used in formal writing. In German, the preterit is also called "narrative past" because it is given preference in writing over the present perfect for example. In conversation, the present perfect is favored over the preterit.

Emphatic forms only occur in English (I do learn). The progressive form does exist in Spanish also, but it is not nearly used as frequently as it is in English.

In French and Spanish, verbs are classified into first, second and third conjugations according to their endings. In German, they are divided into weak and strong verbs. Stem changing verbs (sing-sang-sung) are called "strong."

The importance of verb study is probably illustrated best by the availability of a number of booklets and aids which offer to make the language students' task easier.

ADVERBS

a) ADVERBS modify verbs, adjectives, and adverbs in any language.

b) In English, many adjectives are formed by adding the suffix -ly to the descriptive adjective. The -ly suffix corresponds to German -lich. However, not all words ending in these suffixes are adverbs. For example, words like "friendly," "lovely," "manly," etc. normally serve as adjectives. Also, some adverbs have no endings or endings other than -ly or -lich. Examples: once, later, soon, afterwards, here, yet, perhaps, etc.

In French, adverbs are formed by adding the suffix -ment to the masculine singular form of adjectives ending in vowels and to the feminine singular form of other adjectives. Thus, vrai (true) becomes vraiment and certain becomes certainement.

In Spanish, the suffix -mente is attached to the feminine singular. Example: rapidamente.

In all languages there are also some irregular forms which need to be learned individually.

c) No CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS is entirely satisfactory. According to their meaning, they are usually classified as adverbs of 1) time, 2) place, 3) manner, and 4) measure or degree.

1. Adverbs of time modify verbs; they answer the question "when?" Examples:

(E) once, formerly, soon, immediately, afterward, finally, sometimes, little, often, frequently, recently, etc.
(F) une fois, autrefois, bientôt, immédiatement, après, récemment, finalement, parfois, quelquefois, peu, souvent, frequemment, etc.
(G) einmal, früher, bald, gleich, nachher, endlich, kürzlich, manchmal, zuweilen, wenig, oft, etc.
(S) una vez, antiguamente, presto, pronto, inmediatamente, después, finalmente, a veces, poco, recientemente, etc.

(O)

2. Adverbs of place modify verbs; they answer the question "where?" Examples:

(E) here, there, outside, inside, above, below, in front, etc.

(F) ici, là, dehors, intérieurement, au-dessus (de), (au-)dessous, devant, etc.
(G) hier, dort, da, aussen, innen, oben, unten, vorn, etc.
(S) aquí, allí, afuera, fuera, dentro, adentro, arriba, abajo, bajo, enfrente, etc.

(O)

3. Adverbs of manner modify verbs; they answer the question "how?" Examples:

(E) really, truly, probably, suddenly, usually, immediately, still, yet, gladly, mostly, perhaps, in vain, etc.
(F) vraiment, probablement, soudainement, habituellement, immédiatement, encore, volontiers, principalement, peut-être, vainement, etc.
(G) wirklich, wahrscheinlich, plötzlich, gewöhnlich, augenblicklich, noch, gern, meistens, vielleicht, vergebens, etc.
(S) realmente, verdaderamente, probablemente, repentinamente, usualmente, inmediatamente, todavía, alegremente, ordinariamente, quizás, inútilmente, etc.

(O)

4. Adverbs of measure or degree usually modify adjectives and other adverbs; they answer the question "how much?" or "to what degree?"

Examples:

(E) quite, almost, nearly, enough, somewhat, a little, much, often, etc.
(F) entièrement, presque, assez, quelque, peu, souvent, etc.
(G) ganz, fast, genug, etwas, viel, etc.
(S) enteramente, casi, bastantemente, suficiemente, algo, algún tanto, un poco, etc.

(O)

d) The COMPARISON of adverbs is similar to that of adjectives. However, some adverbs cannot be compared. Some of these are: no, why, there, how, only, when, etc.

Adverbs that are compared in an irregular manner, like well-better-best, badly-worse-worst, etc. need to be learned individually in each language.

e) Sometimes entire phrases or clauses have an adverbial function. They answer such questions as "how?" "when?" "where?" "why?" "to what degree?" "under what conditions?" etc. Examples:

1. His acreage is near the village.(adv. phrase-where?)
2. We can go as soon as you are ready.(adv. clause-when?)

PREPOSITIONS

a) A PREPOSITION is a word generally used before a substantive. Thus, it helps form a phrase which functions as an adjective or an adverb and, at the same time, shows the relation of that substantive to some other element in the sentence. Examples:

1. I would agree to your plans.
2. But your product does not agree with me.
3. We also differ about the method of implementation.
4. In what way does your method differ from theirs?
5. Let us reconsider without further ado.

Already a few examples suffice to illustrate the intricate function prepositions perform in a language. These "little words" need to be learned well by users of any language.

b) The noun or pronoun that follows a preposition is called the OBJECT OF THE PREPOSITION. The object may be a noun or a pronoun. It is the function of the preposition to relate its object to a preceding element in the sentence. Example:

He walked by the door.

The preposition by relates its object "door" to the preceding element in the sentence.

c) The preposition with its object, plus the modifiers of that object, form what is called a PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE. A prepositional phrase may function as an adjective, modifying a noun or pronoun, or as an adverb, modifying a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. Examples:

1. The bottle on the counter contains vinegar.

The prepositional phrase serves as an adjective because it modifies "the bottle" (a noun). Below, it serves as an adverb modifying the verb "is."

2. The bottle which is on the counter contains vinegar.

CONJUNCTIONS

a) A CONJUNCTION is a connective word which joins sentences, clauses, phrases or words together. There are co-ordinating and subordinating conjunctions.

b) CO-ORDINATING conjunctions connect two clauses, phrases, or words of equal status. "And," "but," "for," and "or" are the most common co-ordinating conjunctions. The SUBORDINATING conjunctions are more numerous: "because," "before," "as," "if," "unless," "when," "though," "where," "since," "whether," "until," "as if," "while," "after," etc. Some conjunctions that are used in pairs, like "either...or," are called CORRELATIVES. Subordinating conjunctions connect a dependent clause to a main (or independent) clause. Example:

1. I am late even though the traffic is light.

"I am late" is the main clause. The clause "the traffic is light" is joined to the principal clause through the subordinating conjunction. Thus, it becomes "dependent."

c) In foreign languages, certain conjunctions must be used with special care because they subordinate word order, as a German example will show, or they may call for the use of a subjunctive verb in the dependent clause. In French, for example, the conjunctions pour que (in order that), avant que (before), and bien que (although), are always followed by a verb in the subjunctive mood. The example in b above would read as follows in French:

Je suis en retard bien qu'il y ait peu de circulation.

In Spanish, the conjunctions a menos que (unless), con tal que (provided), and para que (so that) must always be followed by subjunctive verb forms.

Example: ¿Que hacemos para que ella se case?
(What are we going to do so that she will get married?)

In German, no subjunctive forms are called for by any conjunctions, but subordinating conjunctions do change the word order in the dependent clause so that the inflected verb occupies the final position. EXAMPLE:

Er freute sich, weil alles gut ging.
(He was glad, because everything went well.

SUGGESTED EXERCISE:

Review your knowledge of grammatical terms with the help of a glossary or by consulting books like the following:

a) Brown, Frank X. English Grammar for Language Students. Basic Grammatical Terminology Defined and Alphabetically Arranged. Ann Arbor, 1947.

b) Goldman, Norma and Ladislas Szymanski. English Grammar for Students of Latin. Edited by Jacqueline Morton. Ann Arbor, 1983.

c) Morton, Jacqueline. English Grammar for Students of French. Ann Arbor, 1979.

d) Primorac, Karen and Sergio Adorni. English Grammar for Students of Italian. Edited by Jacqueline Morton. Ann Arbor, 1982.

e) Spinelli, Emily. English Grammar for Students of Spanish. Edited by Jacqueline Morton. Ann Arbor, 1980.

f) Zorach, Cecile. English Grammar for Students of German. Ann Arbor, 1980.

VII. Didactic Resources

QUIZ AND DISCUSSION PROBLEMS

Decide whether the statements below are true or false and circle T or F; also select and mark the best response in each of the multiple-choice exercises. The other types of problems can be completed by following the respective instructions. Answer keys are provided at spaced intervals for quick verifications of appropriate choices.

A

T F 1. Living languages are subject to constant modification.

T F 2. Even when the same alphabet is used in two different languages, the sound value of a given letter is not necessarily identical in both.

T F 3. Good sound imitation is contingent upon accurate perception.

T F 4. A learner often transfers the sound system of his native language to the foreign language without being aware of it.

T F 5. Hearing a foreign language automatically results in good pronunciation by the learner.

T F 6. Talking <u>about</u> a foreign language will not lead to a command of it without simultaneous extensive practice in <u>using</u> it.

T F 7. Frequent references to one's primary language tend to confuse rather than help in beginning foreign language study.

T F 8. Language is intimately tied to a person's feelings and activities.

T F 9. The rate of language learning a person can achieve is related to his/her particular capacities which are the result of genetic potential plus total past experience.

T F 10. Language learning proceeds at different rates for different persons under seemingly indential conditions.

T F 11. Much meaning is often lost when writings are translated into another language.

T F 12. A person can never really penetrate the thinking of people in a foreign country until (s)he has first penetrated the language which carries, reflects and molds the thoughts and ideas of that people.

T F 13. English, like all languages, causes distortions by the way it structures expression.

T F 14. Any language can be made to appear as the most logical if it is the one which is chosen as the base of comparison.

T F 15. It is virtually impossible to find a consistent pattern in one language which occurs with equal consistency in another language.

16. The writing system of any language is incomplete because it does not indicate
    a) melody and pitch of the voice
    b) the rhythm of speech
    c) the gestures that often accompany speech
    d) all of these
    e) none of these

17. In etymological dictionaries, one looks up
    a) foreign words
    b) word origins
    c) synonyms and antonyms
    d) abbreviations and acronyms

18. In bilingual American communities, people generally fail to capitalize upon the language skills of the non-English-speaking segment of the local population because of
    a) intolerance
    b) rivalry
    c) distrust
    d) other reason (specify please):_____

_____

19. In addition to fundamental control of a foreign language, a learner's likeliest most valuable asset would generally seem to be a
    a) basic knowledge of world history
    b) good politico-geographic orientation
    c) flexibility and openness of mind
    d) friendly attitude toward foreigners

20. Which of the following might be popularly considered to be the most plausible reason for learning a foreign language?
    a) National security and defense
    b) Foreign travel and commerce
    c) Social and moral considerations
    d) Personal satisfaction/fulfillment

ANSWER KEY (for group A): 1T, 2T, 3T, 4T, 5F, 6T, 7T, 8T, 9T, 10T, 11T, 12T, 13T, 14T, 15T, 16d, 17b, 18d, 19c, 20b or d.

B

Multiple Choice. Select and mark the best response.

1) Which of the following is the most popular foreign language studied in Russia?
   a) English
   b) French
   c) German
   d) Spanish

2) Which of the following is the least popular foreign language studied in the US?
   a) French
   b) German
   c) Russian
   d) Spanish

3) If "everyone" in the world knew English, at least as a second language, but native speakers of English knew no other languages, who would be best equipped to relate to others in the international arena?
   a) monolingual speakers of English
   b) monolingual speakers of other languages
   c) bilingual speakers of other languages
   d) bilingual speakers of English

4) Which of the following came closest, in the 17th Century, to becoming a common language at least among the educated?
   a) English
   b) French
   c) Greek
   d) Latin

5) In addition to naturally evolved languages, which are rather irregular in many ways, there are some "man-made" "synthetic" "artificial" or "constructed" languages which could be "universally" adopted. Which of the following is NOT such a language?
   a) Amharic
   b) Esperanto
   c) Interlinga
   d) Volapück

6) Estimates vary, but which of the following most closely indicates the number of languages that are thought to exist on earth?
   a) 750
   b) 3000
   c) 5000
   d) 10,000

7) How many languages and dialects has the Bible been translated into (approximately)?
   a) 500
   b) 1000
   c) 1500
   d) 2000

8) Which of the following are not part of the Indo-European language family?
   a) Irish, Scottish, Welsh
   b) Old Prussian, Lettish, Lithuarian
   c) Iranian, Greek, Russian
   d) Estonian, Finnish, Hungarian

9) The purpose of studies in comparative linguistics is to:
   a) determine which languages are best.
   b) help improve "primitive" languages.
   c) discover interrelationships and origins.
   d) arrive at standardized forms.

10) Words that are similar in appearance_____have similar meanings in two different languages of the same family.
   a) rarely
   b) always
   c) never
   d) often

T F 11) Language can be said to consist of a set of habits.

T F 12) Since foreign language study is of little practical use for Americans, it only serves to fulfill humanities requirements.

T F 13) Language is a kind of regular code used by a community the way scientists use their formulas and equations.

T F 14) Lanugage mirrors the culture of the society of speakers who use it.

T F 15) Not every word or concept in a given language has true and accurate counterparts in all others.

T F 16) There are no "primitive" languages, insofar as they serve the purpose for which they were designed.

T F 17) Native speakers of all languages employ a system of "rules" which they have unconsciously learned through constant practice.

T F 18) Our ability to express our inner throughts to ourselves is unaffected by foreign language study.

T F 19) The writing system of any language is incomplete.

T F 20) The degree of correspondence between the written symbols and the spoken sounds varies in different languages.

T F 21) In language study, the sound value assigned to an "a" for example, is an "a" is an "a", is an "a", and so on, just like a rose is a rose is a rose is a rose, etc.

T F 22) Insufficient attention to and practice of sounds and their symbols results in faulty speech.

T F 23) In addition to word content, language students need to learn about forms, order and functions of words.

T F 24) Vocabulary and grammar is not all there is to language study.

T F 25) Vowels, dipthongs, and consonants constitute the "building blocks" of a language.

T F 26) Speech sounds can be classified according to their acoustical properties.

T F 27) In most languages, the number of different sounds varies from about thirty to fifty.

T F 28) The written symbols of most languages are approximations at best.

T F 29) Fortunately, there are usually exact corresponding sound/symbol equivalents between most languages.

T F 30) Nationally observed holidays (with full pay) tend to be less numerous in Western European countries than in the US?

ANSWER KEY (for group B): 1a, 2c, 3d, 4d, 5a, 6b, 7c, 8d, 9c, 10d, 11T, 12F, 13F, 14T, 15T, 16T, 17T, 18F, 19T, 20T, 21F, 22T, 23T, 24T, 25T, 26T, 27T, 28T, 29F, 30F.

C

Circle a) or b), depending upon which of the two makes the statement factual.

1) In French and Spanish, ordinal numbers (first, second, etc.) are used _____ frequently than/as in English and German.
   a) less
   b) as

2) The French way of counting is reminiscent of the _____ system.
   a) Greek
   b) Babylonian

3) The Roman system of number symbols_____suitable for rapid written calculations.
   a) was
   b) was not

4) The ancient Greeks had _____ parallel systems of numerals.
   a) two
   b) three

5) The Greeks_____the Phoenician system of numbers.
   a) eliminated
   b) expanded

6) The Phoenicians had to start at the beginning when they had reached
   a) 499
   b) 999

7) The system of number notation which is used in most parts of the world today is called
   a) Arabic
   b) Hebrew

8) Through positional notation, all numbers can be expressed, in the most popular system, with only _____ symbols
   a) ten
   b) seven

9) Originally, the symbols used in the _____ system reflected their respective numberical values by the number of angles they had.
   a) Roman
   b) Arabic

10) Chronometers which are more elaborate than sun-dials, hour-glasses, and water clocks, are not mentioned in historic accounts until the _____-century
   a) 12th
   b) 13th

11) The designations A.M. and P.M. _____generally used in French, German, and Spanish.
   a) are
   b) are not

12) The "foreign" appearance of maps is often due to differences in_____
   a) layout
   b) spelling

Give the numerical values the Romans assigned to the following letters:

13) V_____ 14) I_____ 15) M_____ 16) C_____

17) X_____ 18) $\overline{M}$_____ 19) L_____ 20) D_____

Multiple choice problems.

21) In the French system of counting, the "teens" begin with
   a) 13 (treize)
   b) 15 (quinze)
   c) 17 (dix-sept)
   d) ? (explain)_____

22) The German way of counting from 21 to 29, 31 to 39, etc. which seems "backward" like one-and-twenty, two-and-twenty, etc. is
   a) typically German
   b) based on Latin
   c) derived from Greek
   d) non Indo-European

23) In French and Spanish, ordinal numbers like 1st, 2nd, 3rd, etc. are
   a) never used
   b) always used
   c) seldom used
   d) not known

24) Roman numerals (I, II, III, etc.) can be visualized as an outgrowth of
   a) Runic writing
   b) a tally method
   c) primitive societies
   d) the Greek alphabet

25) The Phoenicians
   a) had no way of counting in writing (on papyrus)
   b) assigned numerical values to the letters of the alphabet
   c) tallied with sticks or pebbles only
   d) adopted the so-called "Arabic" system of number notation

26) The "Arabic" system of number notation was developed by the
   a) Babylonians
   b) Hindus
   c) Arabs
   d) Hebrews

27) The "Arabic" numerals originally represented
   a) geometric figures with a certain number of angles
   b) hieroglyphic symbols and notations
   c) pictographs and ideograms
   d) none of these, but (explain)_____

28) In chronology, the period of time required for one rotations of the earth on its axis is called
   a) jour
   b) Tag
   c) dia
   d) all of these
   e) none of the above

29) Until the _____, an hour was usually taken as the twelfth part of the period between sunrise and sunset (according to Jewish faith, between sunset and sunrise.)
   a) Middle Ages
   b) 16th century
   c) 17th century
   d) 18th century

30) The pendulum as a pacer in chronometers was introduced by the Dutch physicist, mathematician and astronomer Christian Huygens in the
a) 16th century
b) 17th century
c) 18th century
d) 19th century

31) In telling time (in civilian circles), the 24-hour clock system is least likely to be used in
a) English
b) French
c) Spanish
d) none of the above

32) _____ names of countries are normally preceded by an article.
a) French
b) German
c) Spanish
d) none of the above

33) Which of the following languages has the smallest number of native speakers?
a) English
b) French
c) German
d) Spanish

34) Which of the following is a primary, or widely understood second language, in the largest number of countries?
a) French
b) German
c) Spanish
d) Swahili

35) Which of the following is not officially a bi-lingual or multi-lingual country?
a) Austria
b) Belgium
c) Canada
d) Switzerland

ANSWER KEY (for group C): 1a, 2b, 3b, 4a, 5b, 6a, 7a, 8a, 9b, 10b, 11b, 12b, 13 five, 14 one, 15 one thousand, 16 one hundred, 17 ten, 18 one million, 19 fifty, 20 five hundred, 21c, 22b, 23c, 24b, 25b, 26b, 27a, 28d, 29d, 30b, 31a, 32a, 33b, 34a, 35a.

D

1) What is probably the most beneficial reason for the majority of U.S. students to study a foreign language but least likely to be given as a reason?
a) foreign travel and commerce
b) access to foreign literature and culture
c) descent from and affinity to a given nation
d) a better command and understanding of English

2) Even though most multi-national firms are home-based in the U.S., employers have not been emphasizing a knowledge of foreign languages as a prerequisite for many jobs. Why not?
   a) All foreigners speak English.
   b) Money talks the loudest; language is secondary.
   c) Expertise is most improtant; communication is incidental.
   d) It has been easier to hire qualified foreigners.

3) Arrange the following countries in descending order according to physical (area) size: East Germany, France, Spain, and West Germany.
   a) _____
   b) _____
   c) _____
   d) _____

4) Now arrange the same countries in descending order according to total population:
   a) _____
   b) _____
   c) _____
   d) _____

5) What are other criteria on which the decision to learn a particular language may be based?
   a) personal preferences, inclinations, and dispositions
   b) personal aptitudes and inherent characteristics of the language
   c) career objectives and job opportunities
   d) all of these
   e) none of the above, but (explain)_____

6) The primary reason why speakers of different languages render natural sounds, such as the crowing of roosters, or the barking of dogs, in a dissimilar manner is because
   a) they perceive the sounds variously, as a result of conditioning
   b) of differences in orthography (spelling)
   c) different geographic locations alter the sounds
   d) each rooster, dog, etc., has a "personality" of its own

7) Idiomatic expressions that do not have figurative equivalents in another language
   a) cannot be translated at all
   b) can always be expressed most accurately in translation
   c) reflect poorly upon that language
   d) suggest that speakers of that language lack the given idiomatic concept

8) Idioms and proverbs for which there are no true equivalents in other languages serve to illustrate
   a) the "primitive" nature of the users of such a language
   b) how a FL learner's repetoire of concepts is expanded
   c) differences in cultural and linguistic aptitudes
   d) the varying regional dispositions of different nationalities

9) It has been said that one should speak Italian to ladies, French to gentlemen, English to birds, German to dogs, and Spanish to God. Observations of this type
   a) reflect personal bias
   b) contain a kernel of truth
   c) call attention to acoustical qualities of each language.
   d) are wholly based on irrational sentiments

10) If someone talks about the "language of diplomats" which one comes to mind?
   a) German
   b) Spanish
   c) French
   d) Chinese

11) Until WWI, which of the following was the most popular modern foreign language studied in American schools?
   a) French
   b) German
   c) Latin
   d) Spanish

12) What makes Spanish the most popular foreign language studied in American schools?
   a) it is the most practical and "easiest" to learn
   b) the charming nature of "latinos"
   c) a lack of opportunities to study other languages
   d) historical reasons and tradition

13) Idiomatic differences such as the following

   ENGLISH: the Adam's Apple
   FRENCH: le noeud de la gorge (the knot, bend, or noose of the throat)
   GERMAN: der Kehlkopf (the head of the throat)
   SPANISH: la nuez de la garganta (the walnut of the throat)

   are mainly due to:
   a) linguistic inadequacies
   b) cultural differences
   c) differences in perception
   d) misguided notions

14) Idiomatic differences such as the following

ENGLISH: to carry coal to Newcastle
FRENCH: porter de l'eau à la rivière (to carry water to the river)
GERMAN: Eulen nach Athen tragen (to carry owls, the incarnation of wisdom, to the place whence it emanates)
SPANISH: llevar hierro a Viscaya (to carry iron ore to Biscay)

are attributed to:
a) geographic and cultural factors
b) whimsical immature attitudes
c) a lack of international awareness
d) pure coincidence

15) Idiomatic differences such as the following:

ENGLISH: to fly off the handle
FRENCH: sortir de ces gonds (to fly off one's hinge-pins)
GERMAN: aus der Haut fahren (to jump out of one's skin)
SPANISH: echar sapos y culebras (to throw bullfrogs and snakes)

indicate differences in:
a) cultural traditions
b) psychological perceptions
c) masochistic tendencies
d) manners of behavior

16) Examine the points of reference in the following equivalent idiomatic expressions:

ENGLISH: it is all Greek to me
FRENCH: pour moi c'est de l'hebreu (to me, it is all Hebrew)
GERMAN: das sind böhmische Dörfer für mich (these are all Bohemian villages to me)
SPANISH: para mí eso es griego o gringo (to me, this is Greek, or gibberish)

What could the different points of reference be attributed to?
a) prevailing national prejudice
b) the difficulty of the languages in question
c) borrowed expressions from other languages
d) traditional cultural association or identification
e) other reasons, such as _____

17) Why is the conflict in each of the following idiomatic equivalents portrayed differently?

ENGLISH: to be at loggerheads
FRENCH I: se crêper le chignon (to tear each other's coil of hair or bun)
II: avoir une prise de bec (to battle with one's beaks)
GERMAN: sich in den Haaren liegen (to have each other by the hair)
SPANISH I: reñir sin armas (to fight unarmed)
II: estar de cuerno con uno (to be with horns locked)

ANSWERS (select the likeliest one):
a) Different nationalities prefer different ways of fighting.
b) Rhythm and rhym determine how things are said.
c) It is a matter of metaphorical preferences based on conditioning.
d) The whole thing is pure coincidence and not worth any further ado.

18) In the following set of idiomatic equivalents, the delimitations of the state of affairs depicted seem to have qualitative implications. Which do you find most intriguing and why:

ENGLISH: To be head over heels in love
FRENCH: être amoureux fou (to be madly in love)
GERMAN: bis über die Ohren verliebt sein (to be in love beyond one's ears, that is beyond the point where rational decisions are made)
SPANISH: estar enamorado, hasta las cachas (to be in love up to the brink of madness)

RESPOND HERE: give reasons for your (one) selection:
a) ENGLISH_____

b) FRENCH_____

c) GERMAN_____

d) SPANISH_____

19) The following set of idiomatic equivalents suggest what each nationality considers to be important. Match the following translations with their foreign language counterparts on the basis of what seems to "fit" national traits or attitudes (place a, b, c, or d in each blank):

_____English		a) to make one's own butter
_____French:	faire son beurre	b) to bring one's little sheep to shelter
_____German:	sein Schäfchen ins Trockene bringen	c) to create one's own harvest
_____Spanish:	hacer su agosto	d) to feather one's own nest

20. A comparative study of idioms reveals _____ in the ways in which people of different nationalities visualize and express things.
    a) many similarities and many differences
    b) few similarities and mostly differences
    c) many similarities and few differences
    d) neither similarities nor differences

COMPLETE THE SENTENCES BY CIRCLING a) or b):

21) Between most languages there a) is b) is no word-for-word correspondence.

22) a) All b) None of the naturally evolved languages are completely logical.

23) Through preliminary studies, prospective language learners a) often b) rarely can find out which of a given number of languages may have inherent qualities that are more germane to their thought processes or respective psychological dispositions.

24) The idea that a language reflects the mentality of its speakers was expounded by
    a) Wilhelm von Humboldt
    b) Jacob Grimm

25) The word "idiom" means a) gibberish or nonsense
    b) figure of speech

ANSWER KEY (for group D): 1d, 2d, 3 France, Spain, W-Germany, E-Germany, 4 W-Germany, France, Spain, E-Germany, 5d, 6a, 7d, 8b, 9c, 10c, 11b, 12a, 13c, 14a, 15b, 16d, 17c, 18(open), 19 a-French, b-German, c-Spanish, d-English, 20a, 21b, 22b, 23a, 24a, 25b.

E

True and false statements

T F 1. The speech sounds of a language are customarily divided into vowels and consonants.

T F 2. A learner's memory span in a foreign language is shorter than in his/her native language; therefore, frequent short practice sessions are preferable to infrequent long ones.

T F 3. Examples or models given in a foreign language may not be heard correctly by the learner; therefore, exposure to different speakers is desirable.

T F 4. People who grow up speaking only one language may never realize how thoroughly their respective ability to think is circumscribed by the way their particular language compels them to structure thoughts.

T F 5. The most important difference between two languages are not those of words, but those of structure since each language has its own system of sentence patterns, intonation, stress, consonants, and vowels.

T F 6. Languages have a relatively small number of patterns of sentences and of phrases, and even smaller numbers of parts of speech (such as subject, predicate, object, etc.) but they have a large number of words (and morphemes).

T F 7. Learning a second language involves linguistic, psychological, and other elements.

T F 8. Language learning cannot be understood through trial and error, association, gestalt, or overt behavior alone. It requires a more conprehensive explanation because it involves simultaneously the widest range of human activity.

T F 9. A knowledge of grammar can accelerate a learner's efforts to become bilingual.

T F 10. Typically, a sentence contains a subject and a predicate, or only a predicate.

T F 11. As a general rule, proper nouns are capitalized in most languages.

T F 12. A pronoun can take the place of a substantive which may consist of a single noun or of several words.

T F 13. Interrogative pronouns are used in asking questions.

T F 14. A relative pronoun always refers to a member of one's family.

T F 15. Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, in any language.

T F 16. A conjunction is a connective word which joins sentences, clauses, phrases, or words together.

T F 17. Memorization of dialogues in a foreign language enables students to use them as models in creating sentences of their own by analogy.

T F 18. An attitude of identification with, or sympathetic understanding of, the people whose language one is trying to learn, is conducive to success.

T F 19. A language is the most complete index to culture.

T F 20. A sentence, a phrase, a clause, an expression, etc., constitutes a grammatical arrangement of language elements whose communicative or linguistic significance exceeds the sum of its parts.

T F 21. To understand a given foreign language form, is merely the first step; prior to becoming useful it must be practiced to a point of overlearning.

T F 22. In foreign language study, long explanations without active practice are a waste of time, and even with practice they are inefficient.

T F 23. Songs can make foreign language study more enjoyable.

T F 24. Proverbs embody folk wisdom which may or may not be shared by speakers of other languages.

T F 25. Over the ages, proverbs have been used for inculcating social virtues.

T F 26. The different ways of expressing universal concepts are all attributable to the structural realities of each given language.

Multiple Choice Problems. Select the best response and circle a, b, c, or d:

27) Language is a function of:
a) Time
b) age
c) culture
d) all of these
e) none of these

28) When students try to put FL words together using the speech mannerisms which are characteristic of their respective native language, the results can be ludicrous, insulting, baffling, or totally unintelligible. Therefore, the individual learner should NOT:
a) open his/her mouth until he/she can speak perfectly well.
b) talk to foreigners who don't speak his/her language, too.
c) automatically use his/her language as a "reference."
d) be inhibited at all when he/she uses the target language.

29) Emotional involvement is _____ language learning:
a) conducive to
b) detrimental to
c) irrelevant in
d) undesirable in

30) Arrange the following languages in descending order according to the total number of native speakers: English, French, German, Spanish.
a)
b)
c)
d)

31) Phrases such as "to strike it lucky," "to pull someone's leg," "to hold a candle to someone," etc., which may or may not have comparable equivalences in other languages, are called:
   a) idioms
   b) proverbs
   c) idiosycrasies
   d) dialect

32) A sentence is a unit of speech consisting of a meaningful arrangement of words, or merely a word that expresses:
   a) a question or assertion
   b) a command or wish
   c) an exclamation
   d) any of these
   e) none of these

33) What is generally <u>most</u> problematic in learning a foreign language?
   a) the acquisition of a new vocabulary
   b) structural differences between one's native language and the target language
   c) structural similarities between the languages involved
   d) reading and writing correctly

34) People who speak a foreign language fluently,
   a) are constantly translating their thoughts
   b) think in the language they are using
   c) do all their thinking in their native language
   d) uses their native language as a reference only

35) Arrange the following English words into two (2) columns according to their a) Germanic origin and b) French origin: beef, calf, cow, mutton, sheep, veal. (CLUE: The German equivalents are Kalb, Kuh, Schaf)

a)	b)
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

ANSWER KEY (for group E): 1-13T, 14F, 15-25T, 26F, 27d, 28c, 29a, 30 English, Spanish, German, French, 31a, 32d, 33b, 34b, 35a; calf-cow-sheep, b: beef-mutton-veal.

LIST OF OCCUPATIONS IN WHICH FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMPETENCE CAN BE AN ASSET

A

1) Accountants (international
2) Actors & Actresses
3) Ad Compositors
4) Ad Hoc Arbitrators
5) Adjudicators (gov't service)
6) Advertising Copywriters
7) Advertising Sales Representatives
8) Aerial Navigators
9) Agri-business Agents (gov't service)
10) Air Traffic Controllers
11) Aircraft Appraisers
12) Airline Pilots
13) Airline Radio Operators
14) Airwave Monitors
15) Announcers (radio & TV)
16) Archeologists
17) Anthropological Linguists
18) Anthropologists
19) Armed Forces Personnel
20) Art Appraisers
21) Art Dealers
22) Art Historians
23) Astrologers
24) Astronomers
25) Audio-tape Librarians
26) Audiovisual-aids Technicians
27) Audiovisual Equipment Operators
28) Audiovisual Librarians
29) Auditors
30) Authors
31) AV Productions Specialists

B

1) Baggage Inspectors (gov't service)
2) Baggage Porters (airport, hotel)
3) Bakers (fine pastries)
4) Bankers
5) Barbers (internat'l clientele)
6) Bartenders
7) Beauticians
8) Bibliographers
9) Biochemists
10) Biomedical Engineers
11) Boats and Marine Appraisers
12) Bookkeepers (international)
13) Border Inspectors
14) Border Patrol Agents
15) Braille Coders
16) Braille Proofreaders
17) Braille Transcribers
18) Broadcast Technicians (internt'l)
19) Brokers (internat'l securities)
20) Bus Tour Operators

C

1) Caddies
2) Cadets
3) Camera Operators
4) Camouflage Specialists
5) Campground Attendants
6) Cantors
7) Cargo Inspectors
8) Caricaturists
9) Cartoonists
10) Caseworkers
11) Cashiers
12) Catalogers
13) Catechists
14) Census Clerks
15) Chaperons
16) Chaplains
17) Character Actors/Actresses
18) Charge-account Clerks
19) Chauffeurs
20) Chefs
21) Chemists
22) Chief Stewards/Stewardesses
23) Chief Wardens
24) Child-day-care Center Workers
25) Child Psychologists
26) Children's Librarians

27) Children's Tutors
28) Chiropractors
29) Choir Leaders
30) Choral Directors
31) Christian Science Practitioners
32) CIA Agents
33) Cinematographers
34) Cipher Experts
35) Circus Agents
36) City-library Directors
37) Civil Engineers
38) Civil Preparedness Coordinators
39) Civil Service Clerks
40) Clergy
41) Clerk-Typists
42) Clinical Instructors
43) Coin Dealers
44) Columnists
45) Combat Operations Researchers
46) Combat Surveillance Officers
47) Comedians/Comediennes
48) Comedy Writers
49) Command Specialists
50) Commentators
51) Commercial Artists
52) Commercial Pilots
53) Commercial Representatives
54) Commissary Agents
55) Commissary Managers
56) Commissary Representatives
57) Commission Auditors
58) Commission Clerks
59) Commodity Analysts
60) Communications Consultants
61) Communications Coordinators
62) Communications Managers
63) Community Health Educators
64) Community Organization Workers
65) Compilers
66) Composers
67) Computer-applications Engineers
68) Computer Programmers
69) Computer-systems Engineers
70) Computer Analysts
71) Conciliators
72) Conductors (Orchestra & R. R.)
73) Conservation Scientists
74) Continuity Writers (Radio & TV)
75) Contribution Solicitors
76) Control Specialists
77) Controllers
78) Cooks (Resort & Ethnic Specialty)
79) Copilots
80) Copyright Experts
81) Corporation Managers
82) Correction Officers
83) Cosmetics Demonstrators
84) Cosmetologists
85) Cost-accounting Clerks
86) Costume Designers
87) Counselors
88) Creative Directors
89) Credit Analysts
90) Credit Counselors
91) Credit Officers
92) Credit Reporters
93) Crew Leaders
94) Criminal Investigators
95) Criminologists
96) Crossword-puzzle Makers
97) Cultural Attaché(e)s
98) Curators
99) Currency Sorters
100) Custom Taylors
101) Customs Examiners
102) Customs-house Brokers
103) Customs Import Specialists
104) Customs Inspectors
105) Customs Patrol Officers
106) Cytologists
107) Cytotechnologists

D

1) Deans (of students)
2) Demographers
3) Demonstrators (of equipment)
4) Dental Assistants
5) Dental Hygienists
6) Dental Surgeons
7) Dentists
8) Department Managers
9) Dermatologists
10) Design Engineers

11) Desk Assistants (Radio & TV)
12) Desk Attendants (library)
13) Desk Clerks
14) Detectives
15) Development Engineers
16) Diamond Experts
17) Dieticians
18) Diplomats
19) Directors
20) District Attorneys
21) District Managers
22) Doctors
23) Documentation Supervisors
24) Druggists
25) Dubbing-machine Operators

E

1) Ecologists
2) Economic Analysts
3) Economic Development Coordinators
4) Economists
5) Editors
6) Editorial Assistants
7) Editorial Cartoonists
8) Editorial Writers
9) Educational Specialists
10) Efficiency Experts
11) Engineers
12) Engravers
13) Enologists
14) Entertainers
15) Entomologists
16) Entrance Guards
17) Entry Clerks
18) Entry Examiners
19) Environmental Analysts
20) Environmental Engineers
21) Environmentalists
22) Equipment Installers (Communic.)
23) Escorts
24) Estate Planners
25) Estimators
26) Ethnographers
27) Ethnologists
28) Evaluators
29) Examiners
30) Executives
31) Expediters
32) Exporters
33) Eye Specialists

F

1) Factory Engineers
2) Faculty Deans
3) Faculty Members
4) Fan-mail Clerks
5) Farm Agents
6) Fashion Designers
7) FBI Special Agents
8) Female Impersonators
9) File Clerks
10) Film Editors
11) Film Librarians
12) Film Splicers
13) Financial Advisers
14) Financial Economists
15) Fire Chiefs
16) Fishing Captains
17) Flight Attendants
18) Flight-control-tower Operators
19) Flight Engineers
20) Flight Security Specialists
21) Flight Surgeons
22) Floor Attendants
23) Floor Stewards/Stewardesses
24) Food and Drug Inspectors
25) Food Scientists
26) Food Technologists
27) Foreign Agents
28) Foreign-banknote Tellers
29) Foreign-broadcast Specialists
30) Foreign-car Mechanics
31) Foreign-collection Clerks
32) Foreign Correspondents
33) Foreign-exchange Clerks
34) Foreign-exchange Traders
35) Foreign-language Stenographers
36) Foreign-service Officers
37) Foreign-student Advisers
38) Foreign-trade-services Clerks
39) Forest Ecologists
40) Forest Engineers
41) Forest Recreationists
42) Fortune Tellers

43) Freelance Reporters/Writers
44) Freight & Passenger Agents
45) Freight-traffic Consultants
46) Furriers

G

1) Gag Writers
2) Gambling Brokers/Dealers
3) Gardeners
4) Gas-station Attendants
5) Gate Attendants
6) Gem Experts
7) Genealogists
8) General Agents
9) General Bookkeepers
10) General Managers
11) General Supervisors
12) General Tellers
13) Geneticists
14) Geodesists
15) Geographers
16) Geological Engineers
17) Geologists
18) Geomagneticians
19) Geomorphologists
20) Geophysical-laboratory Chiefs
21) Geophysical Prospectors
22) Geophysicists
23) Goldsmiths (custom)
24) Grant Coordinators
25) Graphologists
26) Graves Registration Specialists
27) Grocery-goods Stock Clerks
28) Groundskeepers
29) Group-insurance-auditing Clerks
30) Group Leaders
31) Group Underwriters
32) Guards
33) Guest-history Clerks
34) Guidance Councelors
35) Guides
36) Guide Escorts
37) Gynecologists

H

1) Haberdashers
2) Hair-and-scalp Specialists
3) Hair Colorists
4) Haircutters
5) Hairdressers
6) Hairpiece Stylists
7) Hair Stylists
8) Hair Tinters
9) Handwriting Experts
10) Harbor Masters
11) Harbor-police Officers
12) Hazardous Waste Mgmt Specialists
13) Head Cooks
14) Head Counselors
15) Helicopter Dispatchers
16) Helicopter Pilots
17) Hematology Technologists
18) Herb Doctors
19) Herbarium Workers
20) Herbicide Specialists
21) Herpetologists
22) Histological Illustrators
23) Histologists
24) Histopathologists
25) Historians
26) Historic-site Administrators
27) Home Economics Specialists
28) Home-extension Agents
29) Home Service Directors
30) Homicide-squad Officers
31) Horticultural Agents
32) Horticultural Therapists
33) Horticulturists
34) Hosts/Hostesses
35) Hotel Clerks
36) House Detectives
37) Housekeepers
38) House Officers
39) House Sitters
40) Humorists
41) Hydrologic Engineers
42) Hydrologists
43) Hypnotherapists
44) Hypnotists

I

1) Ichthyologists
2) Identification Officers
3) Illustrators
4) Imitators
5) Immigration Inspectors
6) Immigration Patrol Inspectors
7) Immunohematologists
8) Impersonators
9) Import Clerks
10) Importers
11) Import-Export Agents
12) Impresarios
13) Industrial Designers
14) Industrial Economists
15) Industrial Editors
16) Industrial Engineers
17) Industrial-Health Enginners
18) Industrial Hygiene Engineers
19) Industrial Hygienists
20) Industrial Occupational Analysts
21) Industrial Relations Representatives
22) Industrial Sociologists
23) Industrial Therapists
24) Infantry Operations Specialists
25) Infrantry Unit Leaders
26) In-file Operators
27) Information Clerks
28) Information Scientists
29) Ingenues
30) Inhalation Therapist
31) Inside Stewards/Stewardesses
32) Inspectors
33) Instructors
34) Instrument Checkers
35) Insurance Adjustors
36) Insurance Agents
37) Insurance Analysts
38) Insurance Attorneys
39) Insurance Brokers
40) Insurance Checkers
41) Insurance Clerks
42) Insurance Collectors
43) Insurance Counselors
44) Insurance Investigators
45) Intelligence Clerks
46) Intelligence Research Specialists
47) Intelligence Specialists
48) Interior Decorators
49) Interior Designers
50) Interns
51) International Arbitrators
52) International-banking Officers
53) International-trade Economists
54) Internist
55) Interpol Agents
56) Interpreters
57) Interviewers
58) Inventory Transcribers
59) Invertebrate Zoologists
60) Investigation Division Officers
61) Investigators
62) Investment Analysts
63) Investment Brokers
64) Invoice-control Clerks
65) Irrigation Engineers

J

1) Jailers
2) Janitors
3) Jewelers
4) Job Analysts
5) Job Development Specialists
6) Jobbers
7) Journalists
8) Judges
9) Jurists
10) Jurors
11) Justices
12) Juvenile-court Officers

K

1) Keepers
2) Keynes-ian Economists
3) Keynote Speakers
4) Kibbutzniks

5) Kibitzers
6) Kinematics Experts
7) Kineticists
8) Kitchen Chefs
9) Kitchen Stewards/Stewardesses
10) Kosher Inspectors

L

1) Laboratory Chiefs
2) Labor Economists
3) Labor-relations Consultants
4) Landscape Architects
5) Laryngologists
6) Laser Technicians
7) Launch Commanders (harbor police)
8) Law Clerks
9) Law Librarians
10) Law Reporters
11) Lawyers
12) Lease Agents (petrol. production)
13) Lecturers
14) Ledger Clerks
15) Legal Aids
16) Legal Assistants
17) Legal Investigators
18) Legal Secretaries
19) Legal Transcribers
20) Legend Makers (signs)
21) Legislative Advocates
22) Legislative Aids
23) Legislative Assistants
24) Letterers
25) Lexicographers
26) Liability Underwriters
27) Liaison Officers
28) Librarians
29) Library Assistants
30) Library Attendants
31) Library Clerks
32) Library Consultants
33) Library Directors
34) Library Helpers
35) Library Technical Assistants
36) Library Technicians
37) Librettists
38) Lie-dection Examiners
39) Lifeguards
40) Life Scientists
41) Life Underwriters
42) Limnologists
43) Linguists
44) Liquor Inspectors
45) Literary Agents
46) Lithographed-plate Inspectors
47) Lithographers
48) Loan Officers
49) Lobbyists
50) Local Announcers (radio & TV)
51) Logistics Engineers
52) Logistics Officers
53) Logistics Specialists
54) Long-distance Operators (teleph.)
55) Lyric Writers

M

1) Machine Builders
2) Machinists
3) Magicians
4) Magistrates
5) Magnetic Prospectors (petrol. prod.)
6) Magnetic-tape-composer Operators
7) Magnetic-tape Encoders
8) Magn.-tape-typewriter Operators
9) Mail Carriers
10) Mail Censors
11) Mail Clerks
12) Mail Handlers
13) Mailing-list Compilers
14) Mail-order Clerks
15) Mailroom Clerks
16) Mailroom Supervisors
17) Mail Sorters
18) Maintenance-crew Supervisors
19) Maintenance Engineers
20) Maintenance Inspectors

21) Make-up Artists
22) Makeup Editors
23) Male Impersonators
24) Mammalogists
25) Management Aides
26) Management Analysts
27) Managers
28) Managing Editors
29) Manicurists
30) Manufacturers' Agents
31) Manufacturers' Representatives
32) Manufacturing Engineers
33) Manugraphers (sign)
34) Manuscript Readers
35) Map-and-chart Mounters
36) Map Clerks (insurance)
37) Map Colorers
38) Map Librarians
39) Map Makers
40) Mappers
41) Marine Biologists
42) Marine Clerks
43) Marine Engineers
44) Marine Geologists
45) Marine-insurance-claim Adjustors
46) Marine-insur.-claim Examiners
47) Marine-radio Servicers
48) Marine-service-station Staff
49) Marine Surveyors
50) Marine Underwriters
51) Markers (shipments, etc.)
52) Marketing Engineers
53) Market-research Analysts
54) Marking Clerks
55) Marshalls
56) Masseurs/Masseuses
57) Master Hypnotists
58) Materials Engineers
59) Materials Scientists
60) Mathematicians
61) Mechanical-design Engineers
62) Mechanical Design Technicians
63) Mechanical Engineers
64) Mechanical Research Engineers
65) Mechanical Technicians
66) Mechanical-test Technicians
67) Media Center Directors
68) Media Directors & Clerks
69) Media Specialists
70) Mediators
71) Medical Anthropologists
72) Medical Assistants & Clerks
73) Medical Coordinators
74) Medical Examiners
75) Medical Librarians
76) Medical Officers
77) Medical Parasitologists
78) Medical Pathologists
79) Medical Physicists
80) Medical Physiologists
81) Medical-record Administrators
82) Medical Secretaries
83) Medical Sociologists
84) Medical Technologists
85) Medical Transcribers
86) Membership Directors
87) Membership Secretaries
88) Membership Solicitors
89) Memorandum-statement Clerks
90) Memorial Designers
91) Menagerie Caretakers
92) Merchandise Markers
93) Merchandising Representatives
94) Merchant Marines
95) Messengers
96) Metallurgical Analysts
97) Metallurgists
98) Meteorologists
99) Methods Analysts
100) Metrologists
101) Metropolitan Editors
102) Microbiologists
103) Micropaleontologists
104) Migrant Workers
105) Military Personnel
106) Mine Inspectors
107) Minerologists
108) Mining Engineers
109) Ministers & Missionaries
110) Money Position Officers
111) Monitors (tel. & tel.)
112) Motor-lodge Clerks
113) Movie Critics
114) Museum Attendants
115) Museum Curators
116) Museum Interns
117) Music Composers
118) Music Critics
119) Music Critics
120) Mycologists

N

1) National Editors
2) National Insurance Officers
3) National Service Officers
4) Naturalists
5) Naturopathic Physicians
6) Naval Designers
7) Navigators
8) Negotiators
9) Nematologists
10) Nerve Specialists
11) Network Announcers
12) Neurologists
13) Neuropathologists
14) Neurosurgeons
15) News Analysts
16) News Assistants
17) Newscasters
18) Newswriters
19) Night Auditors
20) Night-court Magistrates
21) Notereaders
22) Nourishment Workers
23) Nuclear Engineers
24) Nuclear-criticality Safety Engineers
25) Nuclear-decontamination Research Specialists
26) Nuclear-fuels Reclamation Engineers
27) Nuclear-fuels Research Engineers
28) Nuclear Logging Engineers (petr.)
29) Nuclear Medical Technologists
30) Nuclear-plant Technical Advisers
31) Nuclear-test-reactor Program Coordinators
32) Nuclear Weapons Mechanical Specialists
33) Numismatists
34) Nurses
35) Nurse Supervisors
36) Nutrition Consultants
37) Nutrition Educators
38) Nutritionists

O

1) Observers
2) Obstetritians
3) Occupational Analysts
4) Occupational-safety-and-health-compliance Officers
5) Occupational-safety-and-health Inspectors
6) Occupational Therapists
7) Oceanographers
8) Oculists
9) Odd-jobs Workers
10) Office Auditors
11) Office Clerks
12) Office Copy Selectors
13) Office Supervisors
14) Oil & Gas Processing Personnel
15) Oil & Water Appraisers
16) Operating Engineers
17) Operations Agents
18) Operations & Intelligence Staff
19) Operations Chiefs
20) Operations Inspectors
21) Operations Managers
22) Operations Officers
23) Operations-research Analysts
24) Operations Supervisors
25) Operators
26) Ophthalmologists
27) Optical Designers
28) Optical Engineers
29) Opticians
30) Optometrists
31) Oral Hygienists
32) Oral Pathologists
33) Oral Surgeons
34) Orchestra Leaders
35) Orchestrators
36) Orientors (education)
37) Ornithologists
38) Orthodontists
39) Orthopedic Cast Specialists
40) Orthopedic Physicians

41) Orthopedic Surgeons
42) Orthoptists
43) Orthotists
44) Osteopaths
45) Osteopathic Physicians
46) Otolaryngologists
47) Otologists
48) Otorhinolaryngologists
49) Outreach Librarians
50) Overseers

P

1) Pace Analysts
2) Package Designers
3) Packaging Engineers
4) Packers (export)
5) Pages (library)
6) Paleobotanists
7) Paleontologists
8) Palmists
9) Pantographers
10) Parasitologists
11) Parimutuel Clerks
12) Park Guards
13) Park Attendants
14) Parking Enforcement Officers
15) Park Naturalists
16) Park Rangers
17) Park Superintendents
18) Parole Officers
19) Passenger Agents
20) Passenger Attendants
21) Passenger-booking Clerks
22) Passenger Representatives
23) Passenger Service Representatives
24) Passenger Traffic Agents
25) Paste-make-up-artists
26) Pastors
27) Pastry Chefs
28) Pastry Decorators
29) Patent Agents
30) Patent Attorneys
31) Patent Clerks
32) Pathologists
33) Patient's Librarians
34) Patrol Commanders
35) Patrol Conductors
36) Patrol Guards
37) Patrol Officers
38) Patrol Sergeants
39) Patternmakers
40) Pawnbrokers
41) Pay-station Personnel
42) Peace Corps Volunteers
43) Peddlers (retail trade)
44) Pediatricians
45) Pedigree Researchers/Tracers
46) Pedodontists
47) Pelota Makers (sports equipment)
48) Penologists
49) Perfumers (chem.)
50) Periodontists
51) Permit Agents
52) Personal Agents
53) Personal Attendants
54) Personnel Recruiters
55) Personnel Services Managers
56) Petroleum Engineers
57) Petrologists
58) Pet Shop Attendants
59) Pharmacists
60) Pharmacologists
61) Philantropists
62) Philatelic Consultants
63) Philatelists
64) Philologists
65) Philosophers
66) Phlebotomists
67) Photoengravers
68) Photogeologists
69) Photogrammetric Engineers
70) Photogrammetrists
71) Photographic Engineers
72) Photojournalists
73) Photolithographers
74) Photoresist Printers
75) Phototypesetters
76) Phrenologists
77) Psychiatrists
78) Physical Therapists
79) Physical Integration Practitioners
80) Physicians
81) Physicists
82) Physiognomists

83) Physiologists
84) Physiotherapists
85) Pianists
86) Pilots
87) Pilot-boat Personnel
88) Planners
89) Plant Cytologists
90) Plant Ecologists
91) Plant Engineers
92) Plant Pathologists
93) Plant Physiologists
94) Plant Taxonomists
95) Plant Tour Guides
96) Plaque Makers
97) Plastic Surgeons
98) Playwrights
99) Podiatrists
100) Podopediatricians
101) Poets
102) Police-academy Instructors
103) Police Inspectors
104) Police Officers
105) Police Radio Dispatchers
106) Police Stenographers
107) Police Surgeons
108) Policy Checkers
109) Policy Writers
110) Political Officers (gov't ser.)
111) Political Scientists
112) Pollution-control Engineers
113) Polygraph Examiners
114) Port Captains
115) Port Engineers
116) Porters
117) Portfolio Managers
118) Port Pursers
119) Port-traffic Managers
120) Port Wardens
121) Position Classifiers
122) Position Clerks
123) Postal Clerks/Supervisors
124) Postal Inspectors
125) Posters (clerical)
126) Posting Clerks
127) Postmasters
128) Poultry Scientists
129) Power Engineers
130) Preachers
131) Preparole Counselors
132) Prescription Clerks
133) Preservationists
134) Presidents (educ. institutions)
135) Press Readers
136) Press-service Readers
137) Price Economists
138) Principals (education)
139) Printers
140) Prison Librarians
141) Private Investigators
142) Probate Trust Officers
143) Probation Officers
144) Process Artists
145) Production Managers
146) Production Supervisors
147) Product Representatives
148) Product-safety Engineers
149) Professional Engineers
150) Professional Shoppers
151) Professors
152) Program Analysts/Checkers
153) Program Coders
154) Program Directors/Managers
155) Program Specialists
156) Program-analysts
157) Programers
158) Project Directors/Managers
159) Project Engineers
160) Projectionists
161) Promoters
162) Prompters
163) Proofers (print. & pub.)
164) Proofreaders
165) Proofsheet Correctors
166) Property Managers
167) Prosecuting Attorneys
168) Prosecutors
169) Prospecting Drillers (petrol. Prod.)
170) Prospectors
171) Prosthetic Dentists
172) Prosthodontists
173) Protective Officers
174) Protozoologists
175) Provosts (education)
176) Psychiatrists
177) Psychic Readers
178) Psychological Anthropologists

179) Psychologists
180) Psychometrists
181) Public-address Announcers
182) Public Affairs Officers
183) Public Health Educators
184) Public-health Engineers
185) Public-health Microbiologists
186) Public-health Nurses
187) Public Health Service Officers
188) Public Information Officers
189) Public-relations Representatives
190) Public-safety Officers
191) Public Stenographers
192) Publishers
193) Pullman Attendants
194) Puppeteers
195) Purchase-price Analysts
196) Purchasers
197) Purchasing Agents
198) Pursers
199) Purveyors (hotels & restaurants)

Q

1) Quacksalvers
2) Quality-control Engineers
3) Quantity Theorists (econ.)
4) Quartermasters
5) Quick Sketch Artists
6) Quizmasters
7) Quote Clerks (finan. inst.)

R

1) Radiation Monitors
2) Radiation-protection Engineers
3) Radiation-protection Specialists
4) Radiation-therapy Technologists
5) Radio Announcers
6) Radio-communications Officers
7) Radio-intelligence Operators
8) Radio Interference Investigators
9) Radiologists
10) Radiopharmacists
11) Radio Producers
12) Radio Station Operators
13) Radiotelegraphists
14) Reactor Operators
15) Readers
16) Real-estate Agents
17) Receiving Inspectors
18) Receptionists
19) Reclamation Supervisors
20) Reconnaissance Personnel
21) Record Clerks
22) Recording Engineers
23) Recordings Librarians
24) Records Custodians
25) Records-management Analysts
26) Records-section Supervisor
27) Recreational Therapists
28) Recreation-facility Attendants
29) Recreation Leaders
30) Recreation Specialists
31) Recruiters
32) Rectors
33) Refrigerating Engineers
34) Regional ext.-ser. Specialists
35) Registered-mail Clerks
36) Registered Pharmacists
37) Registered Representatives
38) Registrars
39) Registration Clerks
40) Regulatory Administrators
41) Rehabilitation Center Managers
42) Rehabilitation Officers
43) Rehabilitation Therapists
44) Reinsurance Clerks
45) Reliability Engineers
46) Relief-map Modelers
47) Relocation Commissioners
48) Remittance Supervisors
49) Rental Agents
50) Repack-room Workers
51) Reporters
52) Reports Analysts
53) Research Assistants
54) Research Directors
55) Research Engineers
56) Research Foresters

57) Research Managers
58) Research Nutritionists
59) Research Workers
60) Reservation Clerks
61) Reservations Agents
62) Reserve Officers
63) Reservoir Engineers
64) Resort Managers
65) Resource Agents
66) Retail Trade Salespersons
67) Retirement Officers
68) Revenue Agents/Officers
69) Reviewers
70) Revival Clerks
71) Rewriters
72) Rhynologists
73) Roentgenologists
74) Routepersons
75) Runners (library)
76) Rural Sociologists

S

1) Safety Coordinators
2) Safety Engineers
3) Safety Inspectors
4) Safety Managers
5) Sailors
6) Sales Agents
7) Sales Attendants
8) Sales Clerks
9) Sales Engineers
10) Sales Exhibitors
11) Salespersons
12) Sales Promotion Directors
13) Sales-promotion Representatives
14) Sales Representatives
15) Salvage Engineers
16) Salvage Inspectors
17) Salvagers
18) Sample Collectors (chem.)
19) Sample Distributors
20) Sample Gatherers
21) Sanitary Engineers
22) Satellite-instructn. Facilitators
23) Satellite-project Site Monitors
24) Scenario Writers
25) Schedule Clerks (travel)
26) Scheme Examiners
27) School Examiners
28) Science Center Display Builders
29) Scientific Helpers
30) Scientific Linguists
31) Scientists
32) Scientologists
33) Screen Writers
34) Script Artists
35) Script Readers
36) Script Writers
37) Second Stewards/Stewardesses
38) Secret Agents
39) Secretarial Stenographers
40) Secretaries
41) Secret-code Experts
42) Section Chiefs
43) Section Leaders
44) Securities Advisers
45) Securities Auditors/Clerks
46) Securities-research Analysts
47) Securities Supervisors
48) Securities Traders
49) Security Agents
50) Security Chiefs (museum)
51) Security Guards
52) Security Officers
53) Seismologists
54) Senior-commissary Agents
55) Senior Enlisted Advisers
56) Senior Gate Agents
57) Senior Librarians
58) Senior Passenger Agents
59) Senior Radio Operators
60) Senior Reservations Agents
61) Senior Ticket-sales Agents
62) Service Managers
63) Service Officers
64) Service Representatives
65) Service Station Attendants
66) Sextons
67) Sheet Writers
68) Sheriffs
69) Ship's Captains/Officers
70) Shipping Agents
71) Shipping & Receiving Clerks
72) Ship Pursers
73) Short-wave Radio-operators
74) Sign Writers

75) Singers
76) Social Ecologists
77) Social Problems Specialists
78) Social Secretaries
79) Social Service Aides
80) Social-work Consultants
81) Social Workers
82) Sociologists
83) Software Technicians
84) Soil Scientists
85) Solicitors
86) Sommeliers (hotel & rest.)
87) Song Writers
88) Sorters
89) Sound Engineers
90) Sous Chefs
91) Souvenir & Novelty Makers
92) Special Ability Extras
93) Special Agents
94) Special-delivery Carriers
95) Special Effects Specialists
96) Specialists (personal Service)
97) Special Officers (hotel & rest.)
98) Special Police Officers
99) Special-risk Underwriters
100) Special-service Representatives
101) Special Shoppers
102) Speciality Chefs
103) Specification Writers
104) Speech Pathologists
105) Speech Therapists
106) Spielers
107) Spies
108) Sports Announcers
109) Sports Cartoonists
110) Staffing Clerks
111) StageDirectors/Managers
112) Stagers
113) Stamp Analysts/Classifiers
114) State Editors
115) State-highway Police Officers
116) Statement Clerks
117) State Troopers
118) Station Agents/Managers (r. r.)
119) Station Attendants
120) Statisticians (clerks, typists)
121) Stenographers/Steno-typists
122) Stewards/Stewardesses
123) Stockbrokers
124) Stock Editors
125) Stock Supervisors
126) Stock Traders
127) Storekeepers
128) Story Editors
129) Structural Engineers/Inspectors
130) Studio Engineers
131) Superintendents (sundry areas)
132) Supervising Airline Pilots
133) Supervising Chiefs
134) Supervising Editors
135) Supervising Librarians
136) Supervisors (sundry areas)
137) Supply Requirements Officers
138) Surgeons
139) Surgical Pathologists
140) Surplus-property Disposl. Agents
141) Surplus Sales Officers
142) Surveillance-system Monitors
143) Survey Compilers
144) Surveyors
145) Survey Workers
146) Survival Specialists
147) Systems Analysts
148) Systems Engineers

T

1) Table Attendants
2) Tabular Typists
3) Talent Agents/Scouts
4) Talent Directors
5) Tax Agents/Analysts/Attorneys
6) Tax Economists/Examiners
7) Tax Representatives
8) Tax Searchers (real estate)
9) Taxidermists
10) Taxi Drivers
11) Teachers
12) Tea-leaf Readers
13) Teamsters
14) Tea Tasters
15) Technical Aides
16) Technical Coordinators
17) Technical Illustrators
18) Technical Managers
19) Technical Representatives
20) Technical Specialists
21) Technical Stenographers
22) Technical Writers

23) Technicians
24) Technologists (biochemistry)
25) Tectonophysicists
26) Telecine Operators
27) Telegraphers
28) Teleph.-answg.-service Operators
29) Telephone-information Clerks
30) Telephone-interceptor Operators
31) Telephone Operators
32) Telephone-order Clerks
33) Telephone-sales Agents
34) Telephone-sales Representatives
35) Telephone Solicitors
36) Telephone-switchboard Operators
37) Teleticketing Agents
38) Television Announcers
39) Tellers (finan. inst.)
40) Tellers, Foreign Exchange
41) Tenant Relations Coordinators
42) Terminal Operators/Managers
43) Test Analysts
44) Test Engineers
45) Testers (systems, etc.)
46) Therapists
47) Thermodynamics Engineers
48) Ticket Agents
49) Ticket Brokers
50) Ticketing Clerks (air trans.)
51) Title Abstractors
52) Title and Beneficiary Clerks
53) Title Artists (motion pic. & TV)
54) Title Examiners
55) Title Searchers (real estate)
56) Tonsorial Artists
57) Topographic Computers
58) Tour Guides
59) Tourist-camp Attendants
60) Tourist-information Assistants
61) Trade-show Representatives
62) Traffic Agents (air trans., etc.)
63) Traffic Clerks
64) Traffic Engineers
65) Traffic Police Officers
66) Training Instructors
67) Training Representatives
68) Transcribers
69) Translators
70) Transmitter Engineers
71) Transmitter Operators
72) Transmitter Testers
73) Transportation Agents
74) Transportation Clerks
75) Transportation Consultants
76) Transportation Engineers
77) Transport Pilots
78) Trauma Coordinators
79) Travel Agents
80) Travel Clerks
81) Travel Counselors
82) Trichologists
83) Trouble Shooters
84) Truant Officers
85) Truck Drivers (import/export)
86) Tugboat Captains
87) Turnstile Attendants
88) Tutors
89) Type-copy Examiners
90) Type-library Clerks
91) Typesetters
92) Typing Checkers
93) Typing Section Chiefs
94) Typists
95) Typographers

U

1) Umpires
2) Undercover Agents/Operators
3) Undertakers
4) Underwirters
5) Underwriting Analysts
6) University Deans
7) Urban Anthropologists
8) Urban Developers
9) Urban Planners
10) Urban Police and Firefighters
11) Urban Sociologists
12) Urologists
13) User Representatives (acc'tg)
14) Ushers
15) Utilization-review Coordinators

V

1) Valet Managers (hotel & rest.)
2) Valuation Engineers
3) Vegetable Vendors (cities)
4) Vehicle-fare Collectors
5) Vendors (multi-nat'l clientele)
6) Ventriloquists
7) Veterans' Counselors
8) Veterinarians
9) Vice Presidents (banks, firms)
10) Vice-squad Police Officers
11) Video Engineers
12) Videotape-recording Engineers
13) Virologists
14) Visiting Professors/Teachers
15) Visiting-student Counselors
16) Vocational Advisers/Counselors
17) Volcanologists
18) Volunteer Coordinators
19) Volunteer Services Assistants

W

1) Waiters/Waitresses
2) Wardens
3) Warehouse-record Clerks
4) Waste-management Engineers
5) Water-taxi Drivers
6) Water-treatment-plant Engineers
7) Waterway Traffic Checkers
8) Welcome-wagon Hosts/Hostesses
9) Window Dressers
10) Wine-cellar Stock Clerks
11) Wine Importers
12) Wine Stewards/Stewardesses
13) Wood Technologists
14) Word Processors
15) World-trade Consultants
16) World-travel Counselors
17) Writers

X

1) Xenophiles
2) X-ray Astronomers
3) X-ray Technologists
4) X-ray Therapists
5) Xylographers
6) Xylotomists

Y

1) Yearbook Editors
2) Yeomen
3) Yeshiva Scholars
4) Yield Examiners
5) YMCA/YWCA Representatives (abroad)
6) Yodelers
7) Young-adult Librarians
8) Youth Agents (education)
9) Youth Hostel Managers
10) Youth Leaders

Z

1) Zontians International
2) Zoo Directors
3) Zoo Guides
4) Zoo Veterinarians
5) Zoologists
6) Zymurgists

SUGGESTED EXERCISE:
Select one (or more) occupations that interest you and find out from a vocational counselor, or by consulting college catalogs, what the educational and training requirements are for a career in the area(s) of your choice. You may also wish to refer to the latest edition of the Occupational Outloook Handbook at your library for detailed job profiles.

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